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MUZEUL JUDEȚEAN SATU MARE

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XXVI/I
2010

MUZEUL JUDEŢEAN SATU MARE

SATU MARE
STUDII ŞI COMUNICĂRI

seria
ARHEOLOGIE

XXVI / I

EDITURA MUZEULUI SĂTMĂREAN
SATU MARE
2010

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Răspunderea pentru conţinutul ştiinţific al studiilor, formulări şi calitatea textelor în limbi străine revine, în exclusivitate, autorilor.
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Acest material este publicat în cadrul proiectului „*Patrimonium. Valorificarea moştenirii culturale comune în regiunea de graniţă*" derulat de Muzeul Judeţean Satu Mare şi Direcţia Muzeelor din judeţul Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, finanţat prin Programul de Cooperare Transfrontalieră Ungaria-România 2007-2013

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www.huro-cbc.eu

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ISSN 0258-1558

TIPOGRAFIA VEGA PROD SRL

AMURGUL MILENIULUI II A. CHR. ÎN CÂMPIA TISEI ŞI TRANSILVANIA

DAS ENDE DES 2. JAHRTAUSENDES V. CHR AUF DER THEIß-EBENE UND SIEBENBÜRGEN

Simpozion / Symposium

Satu Mare 18-19 iulie 2008

Editor / Herausgegeben von

LIVIU MARTA

SATU MARE 2010

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An der Grenze der zwei „Welten"– das Kulturbild der polnischen Karpatenzone an der Wende des 2. und 1. Jahrtausends vor Chr.

Marcin S. Przybyła

Wenn wir auf eine Karte mit der traditionellen Teilung der spätbronzezeitlichen Kulturen Mitteleuropas schauen, bildet das Westkarpatengebiet eine Grenzzone zwischen zwei Kulturtraditionen (Abb. 1). Die erste von ihnen–die „nördliche"–war mit der Europäischen Niederung verbunden, aber ihr südlicher Bereich umfasste auch die sich auf dem nördlichen Vorfeld der Karpaten erstreckende Lößhochebene. Die zweite Tradition entwickelte sich grundsätzlich im Theiß-Gebiet. Sie drang jedoch auch tief in die südlich offenen Flusstäler. Der Raum der Vorgebirgen und der Gebirgstälern, der sich zwischen beiden Gebieten erstreckt, wird von völlig unterschiedlichen geographischen Besiedlungsbedingungen charakterisiert. Die Archäologen ordnen sie trotzdem–je nach den angenommenen Grundsätzen–zu einer der beiden erwähnten Kulturtraditionen ein.

In meinem Aufsatz werde ich mich auf eine Vorstellung der materiellen Kultur der spätbronzezeitlichen Populationen aus der polnischen Karpatenzone beschränken[1]. Dank dem seit fast dreißig Jahren realisierten AZP-Programm (Archäologische Landesaufnahme Polens) verfügen wir heute über ein verhältnismäßig glaubwürdiges Bild von Dislokation der Besiedlung in diesem Zeitabschnitt (Abb. 2). Es lässt sich die Anwesenheit einiger besonders dicht besiedelten Zonen feststellen: in der Nowy Sącz-Senke (Punkte 1,3,7-8,10,12 auf die Karte) und an mittlerem Dunajec (Punkte 2-4 und 16), in der Jasło-Krosno-Senke (Punkte 5, 9, 13-15) und in der Sanok-Umgebung (Punkt 11). Die Fundstellenkonzentrationen besetzen meistens die von Anhöheketten begrenzten Erweiterungen von Flußtälern. Die Fundstellen kommen sowie im Bereich der Täler, als auch auf den über sie dominierenden Landzungen vor. Die in der Zone der Hochebenen liegenden Besiedlungskonzentrationen–an der oberen Weichsel und am mittleren San–waren dagegen mit den die „nördliche" Tradition repräsentierenden Kulturgruppierungen verbunden. Also mit der Trzciniec-Kultur, und nachher mit der schlesischen Gruppe und mit der Tarnobrzeg-Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur.

Am Anfang der Bronzezeit wurde der hier besprochene Raum von Gesellschaften des sog. epischnurkeramischen karpatenländischen Kulturkreises besiedelt[2].

In der polnischen Karpatenzone wurde er von der Mierzanowice Kultur repräsentiert, die auch in der Nordostslowakei vorkam[3] Dort war sie der Košťany-Gruppe aus der Košice-Senke benachbart. Auf dem Weg der Verbindungen im Bereich dieses Kulturkomplexes konnten sich möglicherweise die Muster der mittelbronzezeitlichen Kulturen mit der Spiralbuckelkeramik ausbreiten[4]

Die Fundkomplexe mit derartiger Keramik wurden im östlichen Teil der polnischen Karpatenzone genauer erkannt. Diese Fundstellen wurden zu der sog. Jasło-Gruppe gerechnet . Zu den bekanntesten gehört die Wehrsiedlung in Trzcinica und die Siedlung in Jasło[5] Diese letzte Fundstelle ist auf einer Anhöhe im Bereich des flachen Tals von Jasiołka-Fluss gelegen, was die Lage mancher Tellsiedlungen aus dem Karpatenbecken erinnern kann (Abb. 3). Die Metallfunde aus den Fundstellen der Jasło-Gruppe erlauben ihren Beginn mit der Phase BA2 zu synchronisieren[6] Die Datierung ist durch die Analyse der Formen und der Verzierung der Keramik unterstützt, die besonders für die klassische und nachklassische Phase der Otomani-Kultur typisch sind (Abb. 3:3-7). Ein wichtiges Merkmal der Fundstellen der

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[1] Die hier vorgestellten Bemerkungen über das bronzezeitliche Kulturbild der polnischen Karpatenzone bildeten die Zusammenfassung eines Teils meiner Dissertation (Przybyła 2009), die in Jahren 2002-2007 in der Institut für Archeologie der Jagiellonen Universität, unter der Leitung von Prof. Wojciech Blajer geschrieben wurde.

[2] Machnik 1987, p. 142, 154-164.

[3] Kadrow–Machnik 1997.

[4] Kadrow 2001, p. 206-218, 217-219.

[5] Gancarski 1988; 1992.

[6] Gancarski 1994,p. 83, 97; 1999, p. 146-147; Gancarski–Ginalski 2001, p. 312.

Jasło-Gruppe ist die Anwesenheit–neben der Spiralbuckelkeramik–auch der Gefäßbruchstücke der Trzciniec-Kultur (Abb. 3:1-2)[7]. Der Anteil dieser „nördlichen" Kulturtradition nimmt in den Fundkomplexen zu, die–wie es scheint–die jüngeren Phasen der Jasło-Gruppe repräsentieren. Als Beispiel können die Materialien aus der Siedlung in Jasło und besonders aus der Fundstelle 56 in Sanok[8] dienen. Die letzte kann man in einen der Phase BD entsprechenden Zeitabschnitt plazieren (Abb. 4).

Weniger bekannt sind die Fundkomplexe mit der Spiralbuckelkeramik aus westlichem Teil des polnischen Karpatenbereichs. Mit den älteren Fundstellen der Jasło-Gruppe kann man hier die Materialien aus den Siedlungen in Maszkowice[9] und Marcinkowice[10] synchronisieren. Die beiden Fundstellen liegen auf den über Dunajec-Tal dominierenden Anhöhen (Abb. 5). Auf beiden folgt auch nach dem Besiedlungshorizont der Mierzanowice-Kultur eine Stufe mit Spiralbuckelkeramik. In Maszkowice wurde die für die klassische Phase der Otomani-Kultur charakteristische Keramik (Abb. 5:3-10) vor allem in einer ausgedehnten Grube oder einem Akkumulationsbereich der Kulturschicht, im nördlichen Teil der Fundstelle freigelegt[11] Daneben kamen hier auch Keramikfragmente der Trzciniec-Kultur, vor allem der mit waagerechten Leisten verzierten Töpfe vor (Abb. 5:1-2). In Marcinkowice stammten die genannten Materialien hauptsächlich aus den mit dem Bau der mittelalterzeitlichen Wehranlagen verbundenen Schichten. Die für die klassische Phase der Otomani-Kultur charakteristischen Gefäßformen, wie ein schräg kannelierter Becher, sind hier weniger zahlreich als in Maszkowice. Es überwiegen die Gefäßfragmente, die ihre Entsprechungen in mehreren „postotomanischen" Kulturgruppierungen aus dem Beginn der Spätbronzezeit im Theiß-Gebiet haben (Abb. 6:5-8). Derartige Materialien kamen auch in verschiedenen Teilen der Siedlung in Maszkowice und auf der Siedlung in Czchów (Abb. 6:2-4)[12]vor, schon in der nördlichen Besiedlungskonzentration. Zu dieser Stufe gehört auch ein kleines Gräberfeld in Chełmiec[13] In der Literatur wurde ein Zusammenhang dieser Fundstelle mit Pilinyer Kultur vorgeschlagen[14], obwohl man die Analogien für Keramik aus allen Gräbern auch in anderen, nach der sog. Expansion der Hügelgräberkultur im Theiß-Gebiet entstandenen Kulturerscheinungen zeigen kann (Abb. 6:1; 7).

Eine danach folgende Stufe in der Kulturentwicklung der polnischen Karpatenzone wird auf einer Seite von der Aufstehung und Ausbreitung der Kulturen mit kannelierter Keramik im Karpatenbecken, auf der anderen von der Entwicklung der frühen Phasen der Lausitzer Kultur auf den Lößhochebenen in Kleinpolen bestimmt. Diese Stufe kann man mit der Phase HA und dem Beginn der HB synchronisieren.

In der Jasło-Krosno-Senke sind für diese Stufe besonders repräsentativ die Materialien aus einem kleinen Gräberfeld und einer Siedlung in Wietrzno, auf dem nördlichen Vorfeld von Dukla-Pass[15] . Aus einem der hier gefundenen Gräber stammt ein Gefäß, das der Keramik aus der späten Phase der Pilinyer Kultur entsprechen kann. Ähnliche Gefäße wurden auch auf anderen Fundstellen aus dieser Region gefunden. Die Mehrheit der Funde aus der Siedlung in Wietrzno, wie die mit Kanneluren verzierten doppelkonischen Gefäße, oder Schüssel mit facettiertem Rand (Abb. 8:1,2,4-5,7-8), kann man dagegen mit einem keramischen Stil verbinden, der auf dem Gebiet der Belegiš II-Kultur entstand, und sich in der Phase HA in dem Raum der Grossen Ungarischen Tiefebene, auf dem unteren Donau-Gebiet und in der Moldau ausbreitete[16]. Nördlich der Karpaten ist derartige Keramik aus Fundstellen

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[7] Gancarski 1988, p. 67-80; 1992, p. 56; 1994, p. 78-83, 97.
[8] Bober 1992; p. 151-154;Pohorska-Kleja–Zielińska 1992, p. 155-164.
[9] Cabalska 1977–dort frühere Lit , p. 107-136.
[10] Szybowicz–Szybowicz–Poleski 1998–dort frühere Lit, p. 77-92.
[11] Cabalska 1974, p. 8, 57-92.
[12] Madej–Valde-Nowak 1998, p. 5-24.
[13] Szymaszkiewicz 1985, p 147-152.
[14] *ibidem*, p. 151.
[15] Janowski 1968, p. 138-145; Gedl 1998, Taf. 45-47.
[16] z.B. Forenbaher, p. 23-41 1988; Leviţki 1994; Szabó 1996, p. 9-109; Bukvić 2000; Motzoi-Chicideanu 2001, p. 197-229; Przybyła 2006, p. 21-92.

in der Umgebung von Kraków bekannt[17] Die hier getroffenen Gefäßformen und die ganzen Sätze der Keramik haben die besten Entsprechungen in den Fundkomplexen aus mittlerem Theiß-Gebiet (Abb. 9).

Neben der Siedlung in Wietrzno stammt noch die frühe kannelierte Keramik aus einigen weiteren Fundstellen in der Jasło-Krosno-Senke, wie die mit Sondierungsausgrabungen erkannte Siedlung in Jasło[18], oder neulich entdeckte Siedlung in Warzyce bei Krosno[19].

In derselben Zeit war in der benachbarten Besiedlungskonzentration in der Umgebung von Sanok die für Tarnobrzeg-Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur charakteristische Keramik überwiegend [20]Diese Differenzierung zeigt, dass eine Rezeption der „südlichen" Kulturmuster nur auf den Vorfeldsbereich von Dukla-Pass beschränkt war. Im östlichen Teil des genannten Raums war dagegen ein Weg wichtiger, der entlang des San-Tals vom Norden lief.

Es ist wert zu betonen, dass in der Zeit der Anwesenheit von Funden der frühen kannelierten Keramik im östlichen Teil der polnischen Karpatenzone, ein besonders intensiver Zufluss der Bronzegegenstände südlicher Herkunft stattfand (Abb. 10). Diese „Importstücke" kamen damals nicht nur in der Karpatenzone vor, aber auch auf den Fundstellen der Lausitzer Kultur am San und im westlichen Kleinpolen.

Eine etwas jüngere chronologische Stelle hat die Siedlung in Nienaszów [21]. Aus den Sondierungsausgrabungen stammen die Bruchstücke der mit Hornbuckeln verzierten oder doppelkonischen Gefäße, die gute Entsprechungen in dem Keramikspektrum der jüngeren Phase der Gáva-Kultur haben (Abb. 11:1, 3). Andere Gefäße, besonders die mit Kanneluren verzierten Terrinen (Abb. 11:2), dürften eine Lokalform sein. Derartige Gefäße kamen auf noch einigen Fundstellen aus östlichem Teil des polnischen Karpatenbereichs vor. Es scheint, dass am Beginn der Phase HB die Einflüsse der Kulturen aus dem Theiß-Gebiet in dem besprochenen Raum schwach wurden. Es zeichnete sich dabei eine Tendenz zur Regionalisierung der materiellen Kultur. Konvergent mit diesem Prozeß sind Beobachtungen, die die aus dem Karpatenbecken stammenden Bronzefunde betreffen (Abb. 10). Aus Kleinpolen sind nur vereinzelte, in die Stufe HB1 datierbare Funde bekannt. Es fehlen dagegen ganz die Leitformen des jüngeren Teils der Phase HB.

Die kannelierte Keramik aus der Phase HA ist auch aus dem Dunajec-Tal bekannt. Die hier gefundenen Formen repräsentieren hauptsächlich einen für die späte Phase der Pilinyer Kultur eigentümlichen Keramikstil. In der südlichen Besiedlungskonzentration–also in der Nowy Sącz-Senke–entspricht diesem Zeitabschnitt eine lange Reihe von Funden aus der Siedlung in Marcinkowice (Abb. 12:7-15). Neben der kannelierten Keramik wurden hier auch Bruchstücke der Buckelkeramik aus der schlesischen Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur und besonders die zahlreichen Scherben von den Gefäßen der slowakischen Lausitzer Kultur gefunden (Abb. 12:1-6). In der nördlichen Besiedlungskonzentration stammt aus dieser Stufe die Mehrheit von Funden aus der Siedlung in Zawada Lanckorońska[22]. Die spätbronzezeitlichen Gefäßbruchstücke wurden hier in einer Kulturschicht unter den mittelalterzeitlichen Wehranlagen gefunden. Auf derselben Fundstelle kam sehr zahlreich auch die Keramik der schlesischen Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur vor, es fehlen dagegen die für die slowakische Variante dieser Kulturerscheinung typischen Materialien. Außer der Siedlung in Zawada Lanckorońska ist die frühe kannelierte Keramik auch aus dem in der Nähe liegenden Gräberfeld in Gwoździec bekannt [23]. Es ist zu erwähnen, dass eine im Fundmaterial aus dem Dunajec-Tal bemerkbare Verbindung von zwei Keramiktraditionen–der Lausizer Kultur und

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[17] Przybyła 2005–dort frühre Lit, p. 219-236.
[18] unpubl. Untersuchungen von J. Gancarski.
[19] Czopek–Poradyło 2009.
[20] vgl. z.B. Muzyczuk–Pohorska-Kleja 1985, p. 169-195.
[21] Cieślik–Madej–Gancarski 1991, p. 223-235.
[22] Bąk 1996, p. 51-84.
[23] Szpunar–Szpunar 2003, p. 477-509.

der karpatenländischen Kulturen mit kannelierten Keramik–auch auf Fundstellen aus benachbartem Gebiet von Zips festgestellt wurde[24]

Diese Tendenz ist auch in den folgenden Zeitabschnitten zu bemerken. An der Wende der Phasen HA und HB wurden in Zips die Wehrsiedlungen gegründet, aus denen die für die Kyjatice-Kultur, sowie für die jüngeren Stufen der Lausitzer Kultur charakteristische Keramik stammt [25]. Die Bruchstücke der mit waagerechten Linien am Hals und schrägen Kanneluren am Bauch verzierten Gefäße wurden auf einigen Fundstellen aus dem Dunajec-Tal gefunden (Abb. 13). Eine große Sammlung derartiger Keramik kam auf der Siedlung in Marcinkowice vor, wo wahrscheinlich in der ihr entsprechenden Stufe ein Schutzwall errichtet wurde[26]. Die weiteren Fundstellen kann man in der nördlichen, sowie in der südlichen Besiedlungskonzentration zeigen.

Es sei betont, dass die genannten stilistischen Merkmale, aber auch eine Tendenz die Gefäßoberfläche zu schwärzen, die in Materialien aus der Gebirgszone bemerkbar ist, am Anfang der Phase HB nicht nur für die Kyjatice-Kultur, sondern auch für die schlesische Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur typisch waren. Die Anwesenheit derartiger Gefäße im Dunajec-Tal muss man also nicht als eine Wirkung von Einflüssen einer konkreten Kulturerscheinung, sondern eher als ein Symptom eines breiteren Prozesses der Stilvereinheitlichung der Keramik in den jüngeren Stufen der Spätbronzezeit betrachten.

Den Wandel des Kulturbilds im polnischen Karpatenzone, besonders im Dunajec-Tal, beeinflussten die Prozesse, zu denen am Ende der Bronzezeit auf dem Theiß-Gebiet und im Kleinpolen kam (jüngere HB und HC Phasen). Im erstgenannten Raum war damals die Entwicklung der Kulturen mit kannelierten Keramik zu Ende und spielten sich neue, mit der osteuropäischen Steppenzone oder mit unterem Donau-Gebiet verbundenen Kulturerscheinungen ab. Nördlich von Karpaten kam dagegen zur Kulturtransformation im Milieu der Lausitzer Kultur. Im westlichen Kleinpolen wurden neue Gräberfelder und ganze Siedlungskomplexe gegründet, die als oberschlesisch-kleinpolnische Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur bezeichnet sind. Im Gegensatz zu den früheren Zeitabschnitten begrenzte sich die Besiedlung der oberschlesisch-kleinpolnischen Gruppe nicht nur auf die Lößbereiche, sondern umfasste auch die bisher unbesiedelten Räume der großen Flusstäler und des Vorgebirges[27]

Die Materialien der letztgenannten Kulturgruppierung kamen auch auf den Fundstellen aus dem Dunajec-Tal vor, unter anderem auf den schon einigemal erwähnten Siedlungen in Maszkowice und Marcinkowice. Diese Fundgruppe repräsentieren solche Formen, wie Tassen mit dem Omphalosboden oder doppelkonische Gefäße. Die Keramik aus den genannten Fundstellen zeigt doch auch andere Verbindungsrichtungen. Über Zips und Hornad-Tal waren die spätbronzezeitlichen Gesellschaften aus dem Dunajec-Tal auch auf die Kontakte mit der nördlichen Peripherie des Theiß-Gebiets geöffnet. Darauf weisen die Funde der Keramik der oberschlesisch-kleinpolnischen Gruppe aus der Ondava-Hochebene hin[28], sowie die Anwesenheit der für die ostslowakischen „Postgáva"-Siedlunden typischen Keramikformen. Es handelt hier um die mit Grübchenbändern und Hornbuckeln[29] dekorierten Gefäße (Abb. 14). Auf den Fundstellen aus der Ostslowakei sowie im Dunajec-Tal kann man auch am Ende der Spätbronzezeit das Vorkommen der für die osteuropäische Waldsteppenzone charakteristischen Keramik feststellen[30]

Bei einer Zusammenfassung dieses kurzen Überblicks des Kulturbilds im polnischen Karpatenbereich ist es ein wichtiger Unterschied zwischen den beiden Teilen dieses Raumes zu betonen, also zwischen den Besiedlungskonzentrationen im Dunajec-Tal und den Fundstellen aus der Jasło-Krosno-Senke und der Umgebung von Sanok. Auf dem

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[24] z.B. Kučerová–Giertlová 2003, 100-102.
[25] Veliačik–Javorský 1983, p. 143-147; Miroššayová 1992, p. 134; 1999, p. 129-152.
[26] eine C_{14} Datierung aus die 10. Jh. vor Chr.–Poleski 2004, Anm. 137.
[27] Rydzewski 1997, p. 264, Abb. 1.
[28] z.B. Jarosz–Tunia 2008, p. 315-316.
[29] z.B. Budinský-Krička–Miroššayová 1992.
[30] Budinský-Krička–Miroššayová 1992, p. 52-59; Miroššayová 2005, p. 200-202.

erstgenannten Gebiet ist die volle Besiedlungskontinuität zu feststellen. Sie manifestiert sich unter anderem durch eine Fortdauer der Ansiedlung solcher Fundstellen wie Maszkowice, Marcinkowice und Zawada Lanckorońska über mehrere spätbronzezeitlichen Stufen. Die diesen Raum bewohnendem Gesellschaften blieben in festen Kontakten mit den Bevölkerungsgruppen aus Zips und aus dem Lößbereich des westlichen Kleinpolens. Daraus resultiert in der materiellen Kultur der ganzen Spätbronzezeit eine Synthese beider Traditionen. Die „südlichen" Kulturelemente, aus dem Karpatenbecken, wurden dabei in einer umgebildeten Gestalt und vielleicht auch mit einer Verspätung übernommen, weil Zips immer ein Bereich der „Gebirgsperipherie" für die Kulturerscheinungen aus der Grossen Ungarischen Tiefebene war.

Völlig anders stellt sich die Kultursituation auf dem Gebiet der Jasło-Krosno-Senke dar. Durch die Karpatenpässe war dieser Raum direkt auf das Theiß-Gebiet geöffnet, und von den „nördlichen" Kulturtraditionen durch die unbesiedelten Vorgebirgszonen getrennt. Auch die geographischen Bedingungen–ausgedehnte, ebene Landschaft und verhältnismäßig fruchtbarer Boden–entsprachen besser der Naturumwelt im nördlichem Teil der Grossen Ungarischen Tiefebene, als die Gebirgstäler im Zentralteil der Westkarpaten. Deswegen bildet die materielle Kultur dieses Raums eine Wiederspiegelung der Prozesse, die im östlichen Teil des Karpatenbeckens stattfanden. Ein wenig anders stellt sich die Kulturentwicklung im oberen San-Gebiet dar. Hier haben wir wieder mit einer innen des Gebirgstals liegenden Besiedlugskonzentration zu tun, die eher auf die Kontakte mit nördlicher Kulturtradition aus mittlerem San-Raum geöffnet war.

Diese Differenzierung hatte als Resultat eine eigenartige Asymmetrie in der Kulturentwicklung der polnischen Karpatenzone (Abb. 15). Am Anfang der Spätbronzezeit dominierten auf dem ganzen obengenannten Gebiet die Muster von Kulturen mit Spiralbuckelkeramik, begleitete ihnen jedoch auch eine Beimischung der die nördliche Tradition repräsentierenden Trzciniec-Kultur. Im östlichem Teil des Karpatenbereichs gewann das zweite Element mit dem Zeitverlauf immer größere Bedeutung. In der Jasło-Krosno Senke wurde die ältere Besiedlung am Beginn der Phase HA unterbrochen und von neuen Gruppen mit kannelierter Keramik ersetzt. Diese Erscheinung stellt eine Wiederspiegelung der dynamischen Prozesse dar, die für diesen Zeitabschnitt im ganzen Karpatenbecken möglich zu beobachten sind. Im Dunajec-Tal änderten sich auch damals die dominierenden Stilistikströme, doch immer blieben die beiden „nördlichen" und „südlichen" Kulturtraditionen im Gleichgewicht. Es fehlen auch die Symptome eines Unterbrechens der Besiedlungskontinuität. Eine Fortsetzung dieser Tendenz ist auch am Ende der Spätbronzezeit bemerkbar. In dem östlichen Teil der Karpatenzone folgte derzeit dagegen wieder eine Veränderung. Nach dem Schluss der Entwicklung von Gáva-Kultur auf der Grossen Ungarischern Tiefebene brach sich endgültig der Zufluss von Bronzegegenständen aus dem Theis-Gebiet zum Kleinpolen zusammen. Das durfte zur Bedeutungsverlust der „südlichen" Kulturelemente im östlichen Teil der polnischen Karpatenzone führen. Dieses Gebiet gab damals den Einflüssen aus der oberschlesisch-kleinpolnischen- und der Tarnobrzeg-Gruppe der Lausitzer Kultur nach. Eine Wiedervereinheitlichung des Kulturbilds im ganzen polnischen Karpatenbereich fand erst in der Früheisenzeit statt, zusammen mit Escheinung der östlichem, von den Waldsteppenkulturtraditionen hinzukommenden Einflüssen (Dzięgielewski/Godlewski, im Druck).

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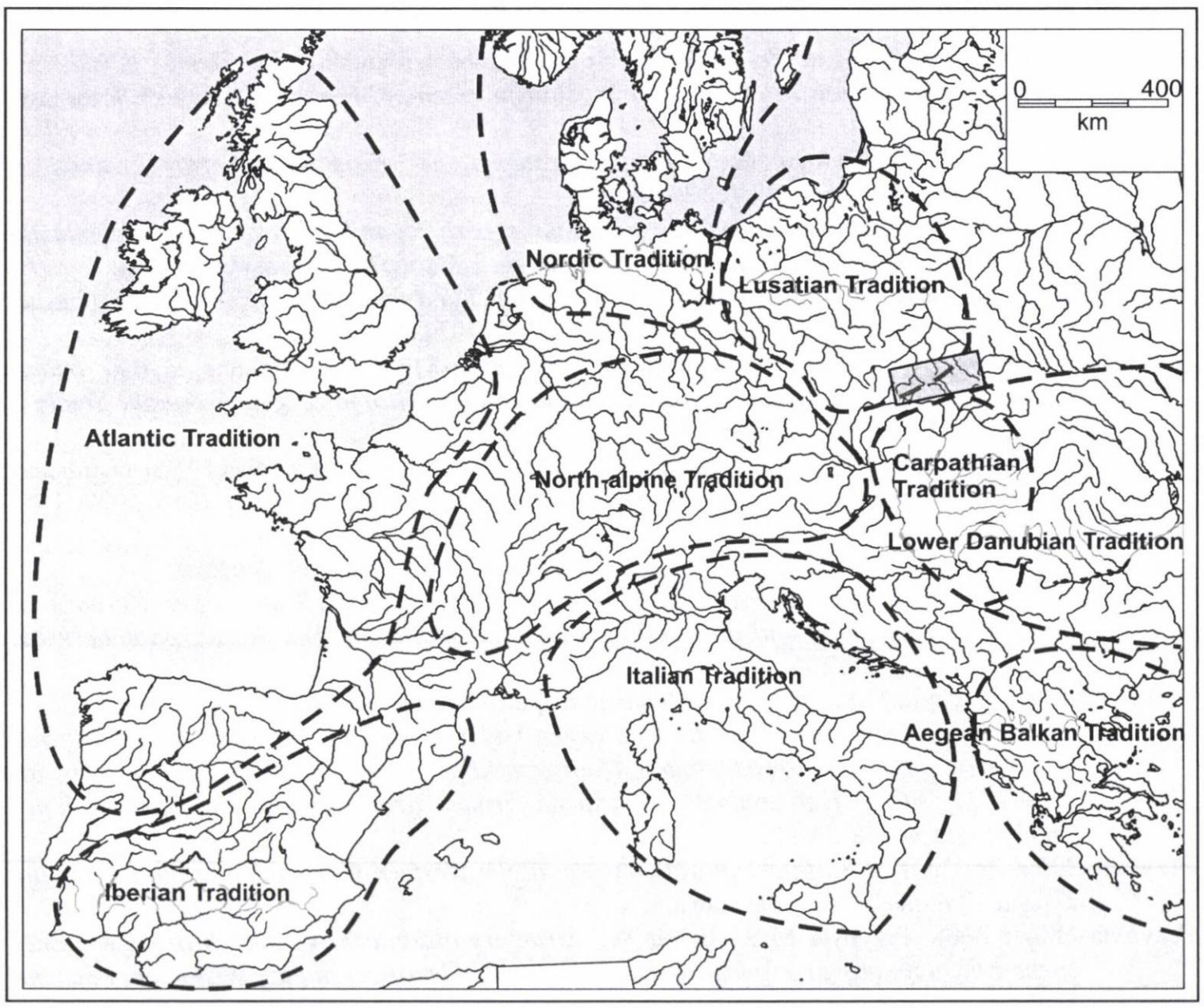

Abb. 1. Der Bereich der polnischen Karpatenzone (graues Viereck) und K. Kristiansens (1998) Kulturtraditionen der Urnenfelderzeit.

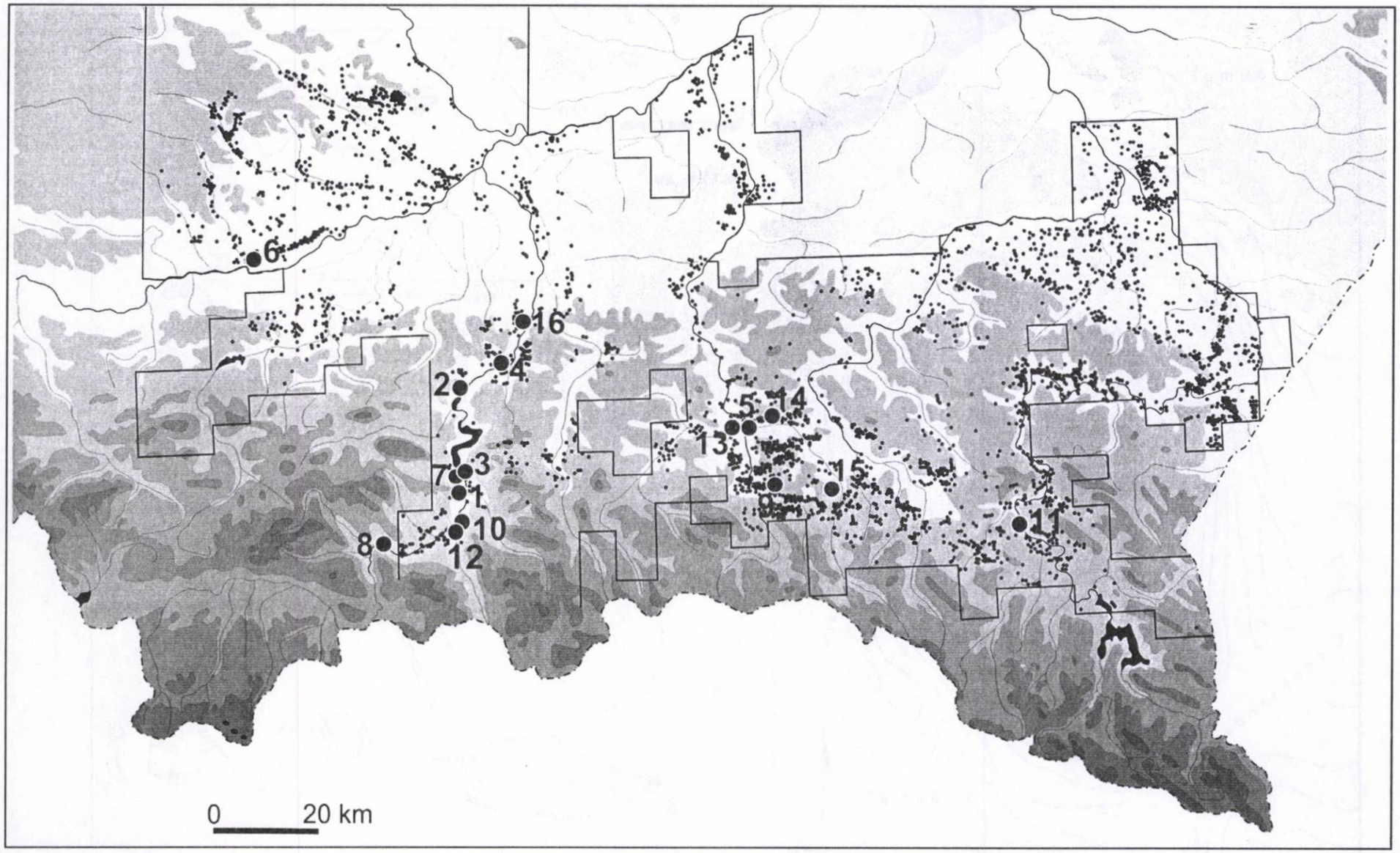

Abb. 2. Die spätbronzezeitlichen und früheisenzeitlichen Fundstellen (BC-HD) in polnischen Karpatenzone (nach Czopek 1996; Rydzewski 1997; Gedl 1998; Materna 1999; Cygan 2005; Urbański 2008; Przybyła/Blajer 2008; Mazur, im Druck). Die im Text erwähnten Fundstellen: 1. Chełmiec, 2. Czchów, 3. Dąbrowa, 4. Gwoździec, 5. Jasło, 6. Kraków-Pleszów, 7. Marcinkowice, 8. Maszkowice, 9. Nienaszów, 10. Nowy Sącz-Biegonice, 11. Sanok, 12. Stary Sącz, 13. Trzcinica, 14. Warzyce, 15. Wietrzno, 16. Zawada Zanckorońska.

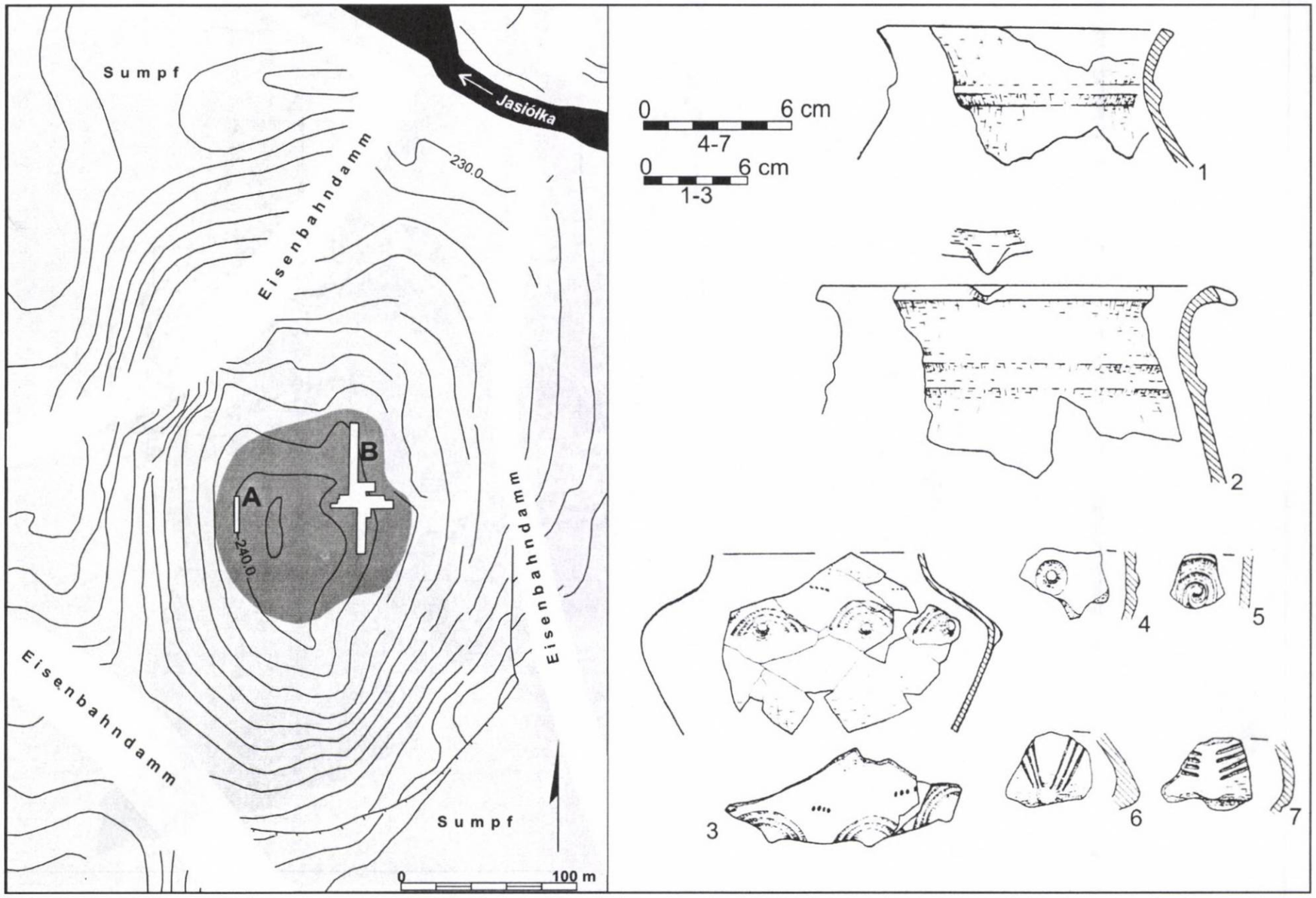

Abb. 3. Die Siedlung aus der Wende der Mittel- und Spätbronzezeit in Jasło in ostlichem Teil der polnischen Karpatenzone. Die Lage des freigelegten Areals (dunkelgraue Zone–der Bereich die Anwesenheit der Oberflächefunde) und Keramik der „nördlichen“ (1-2) und „südlichen“ (3-7) Tradition (nach Gancarski 1988).

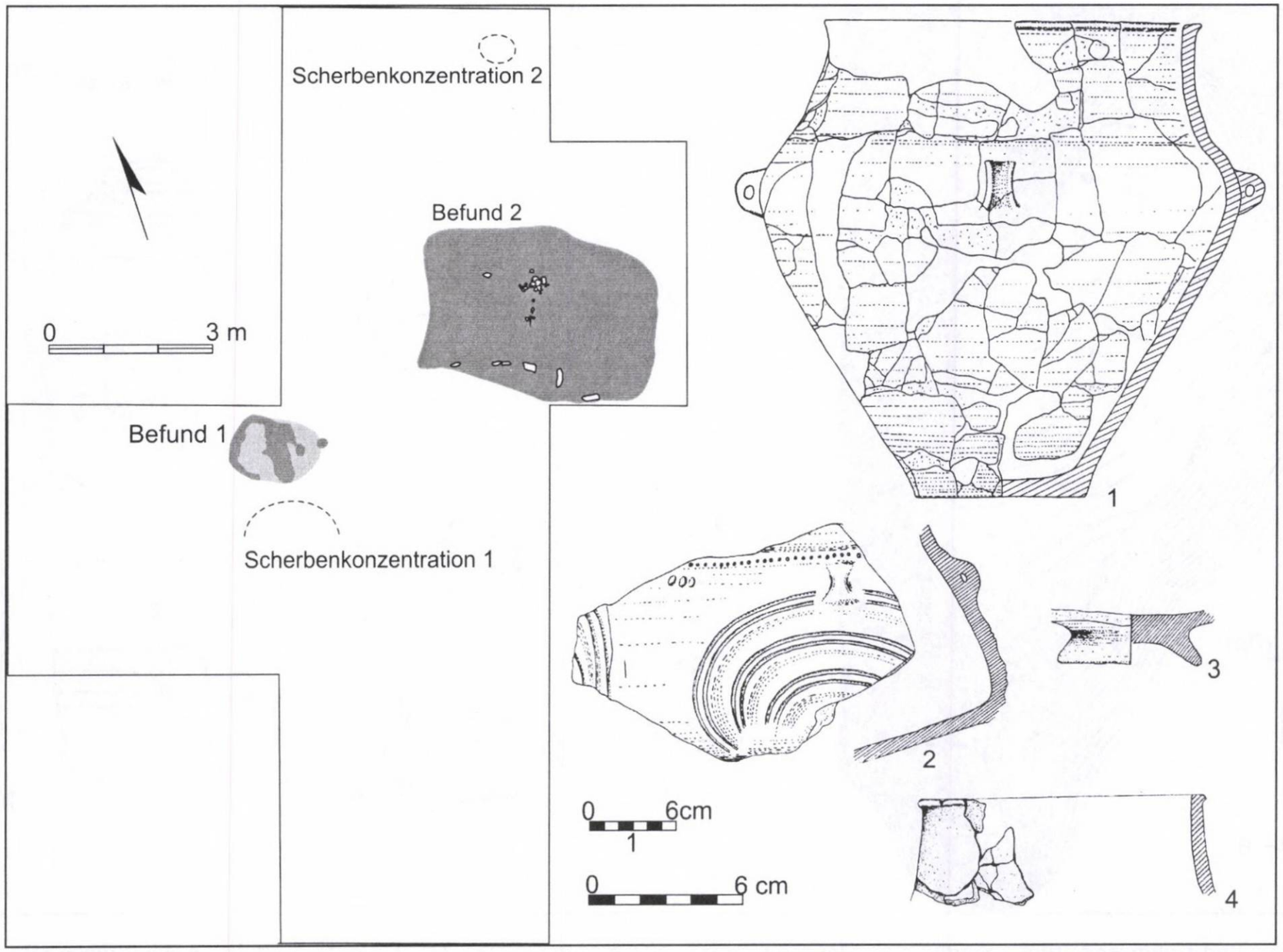

Abb. 4. Die spätbronzezeitliche Siedlung in Sanok. Mittleres Teil der im Jahr 1990 freigelegten Zone mit Resten des Wohnobjekts (Befund 2). Auswahl der Karamik aus den Ausgrabungen im Jahr 1990. Alle Zeichnungen nach Pohorska-Kleja/Zielińska 1992.

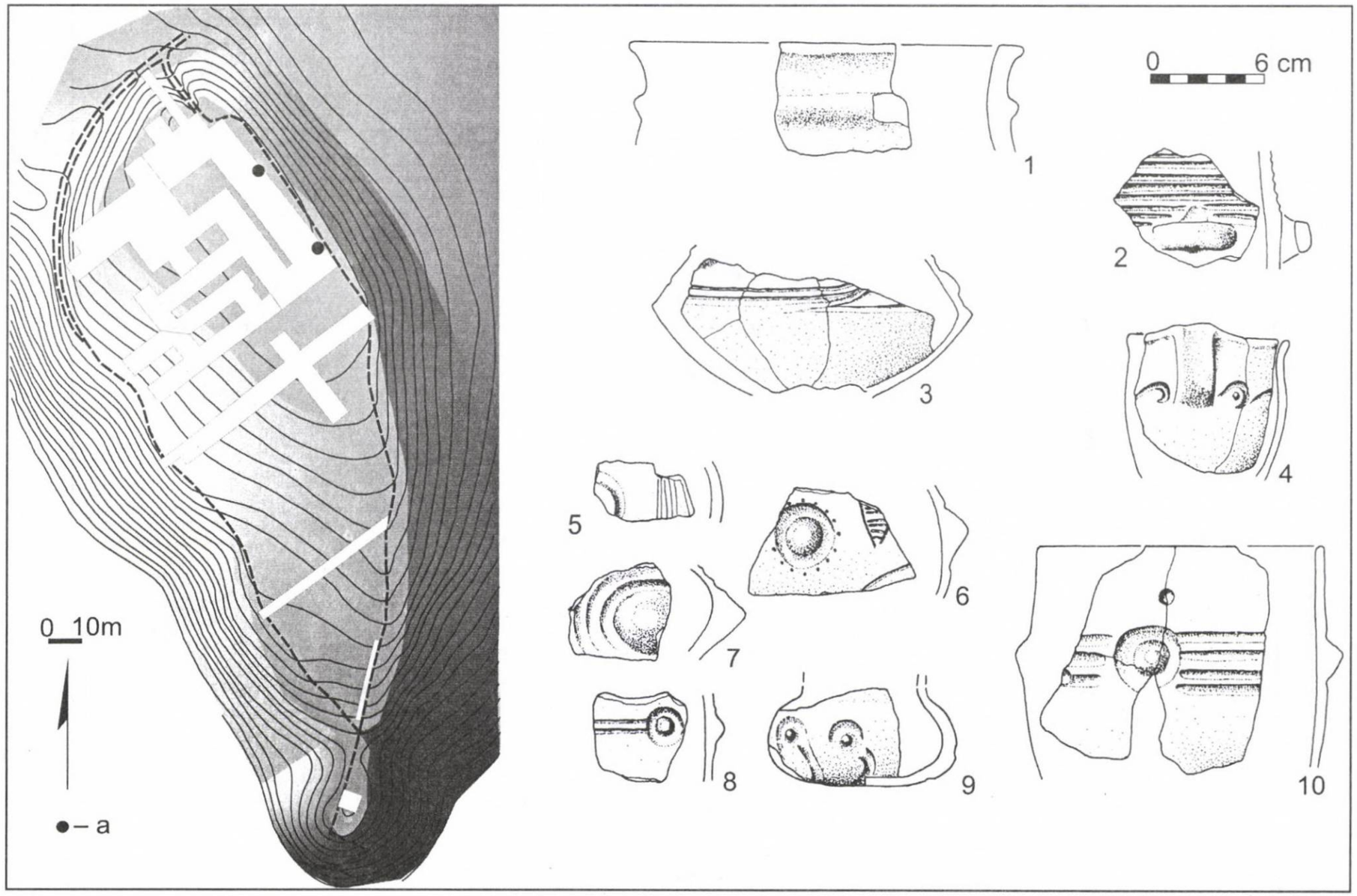

Abb. 5. Die bronze- und früheisenzeitliche Siedlung in Maszkowice im oberen Dunajec-Tal. Die Lage der mittelbronzezeitlichen (BA2-BB) Befunde (a) im Rhamen des freigelegten Areals (nach Cabalska 1977). Keramik der „nördlichen" (1-2) und „südlichen" (3-9) Tradition. 1,3-10 nach Cabalska 1974.

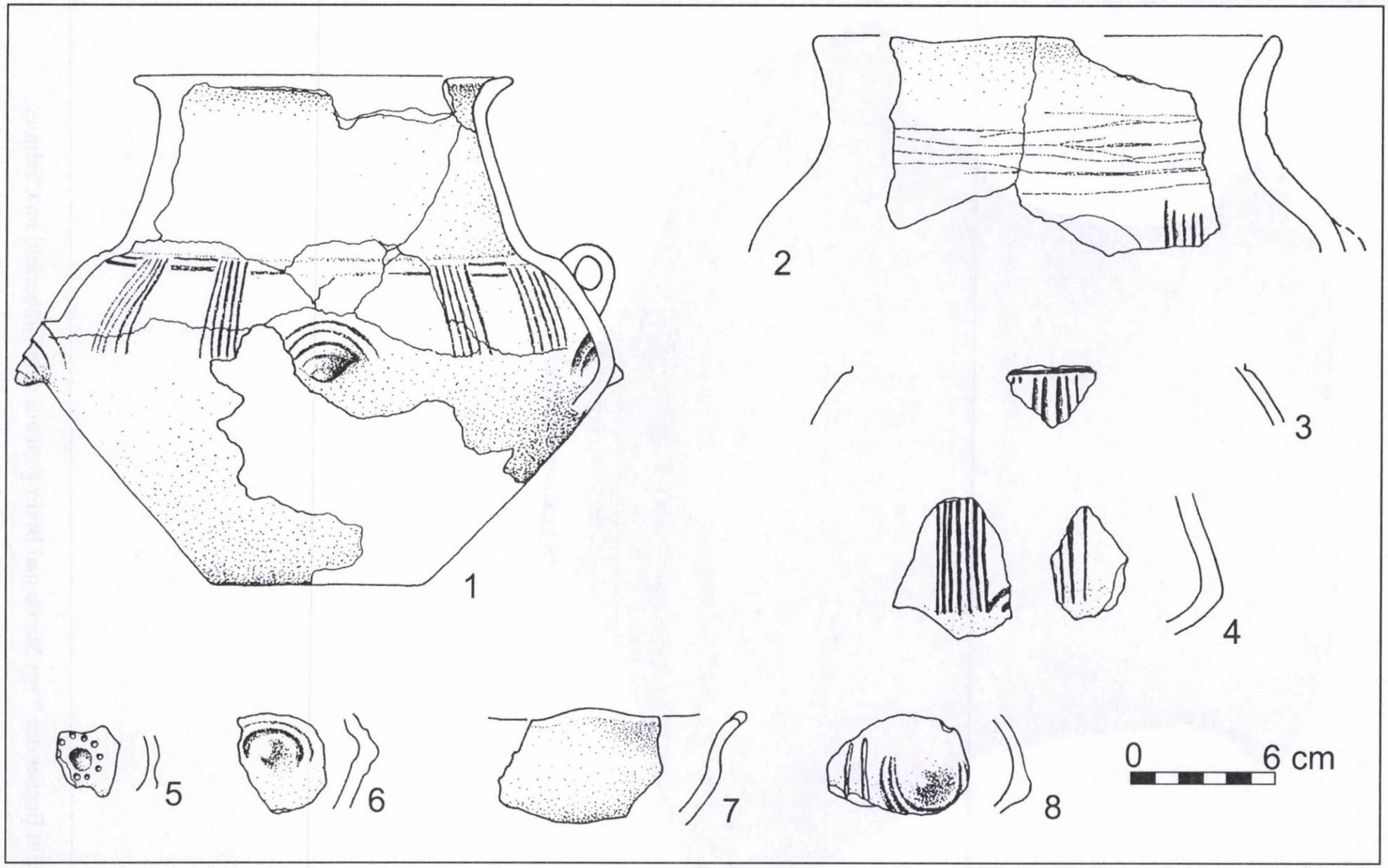

Abb. 6. Die Funde aus dem Beginn der Spätbronzezeit (BC-BD) im Dunajec-Tal: Chełmiec (1), Czchów (2-4), Marcinkowice (5-8). 2-4 nach Madej/Valde-Nowak 1998.

Abb. 7. Ein Becher des Typs Streda nad Bodrogom aus dem Gräberfeld im Chełmiec.

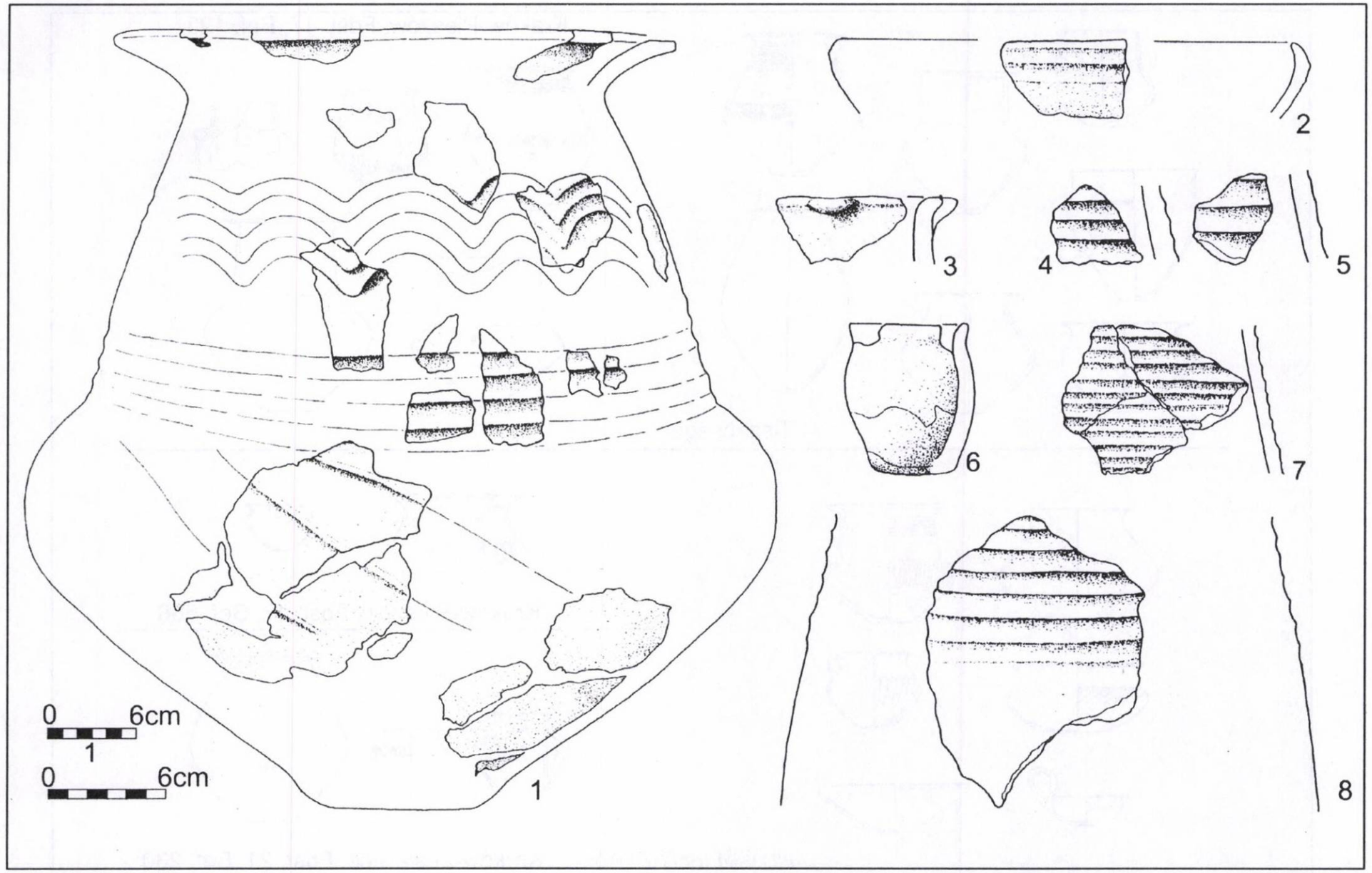

Abb. 8. Die frühe kannelierte Keramik (HA) aus der Siedlung in Wietrzno im ostlichen Teil der polnischen Karpatenzone.

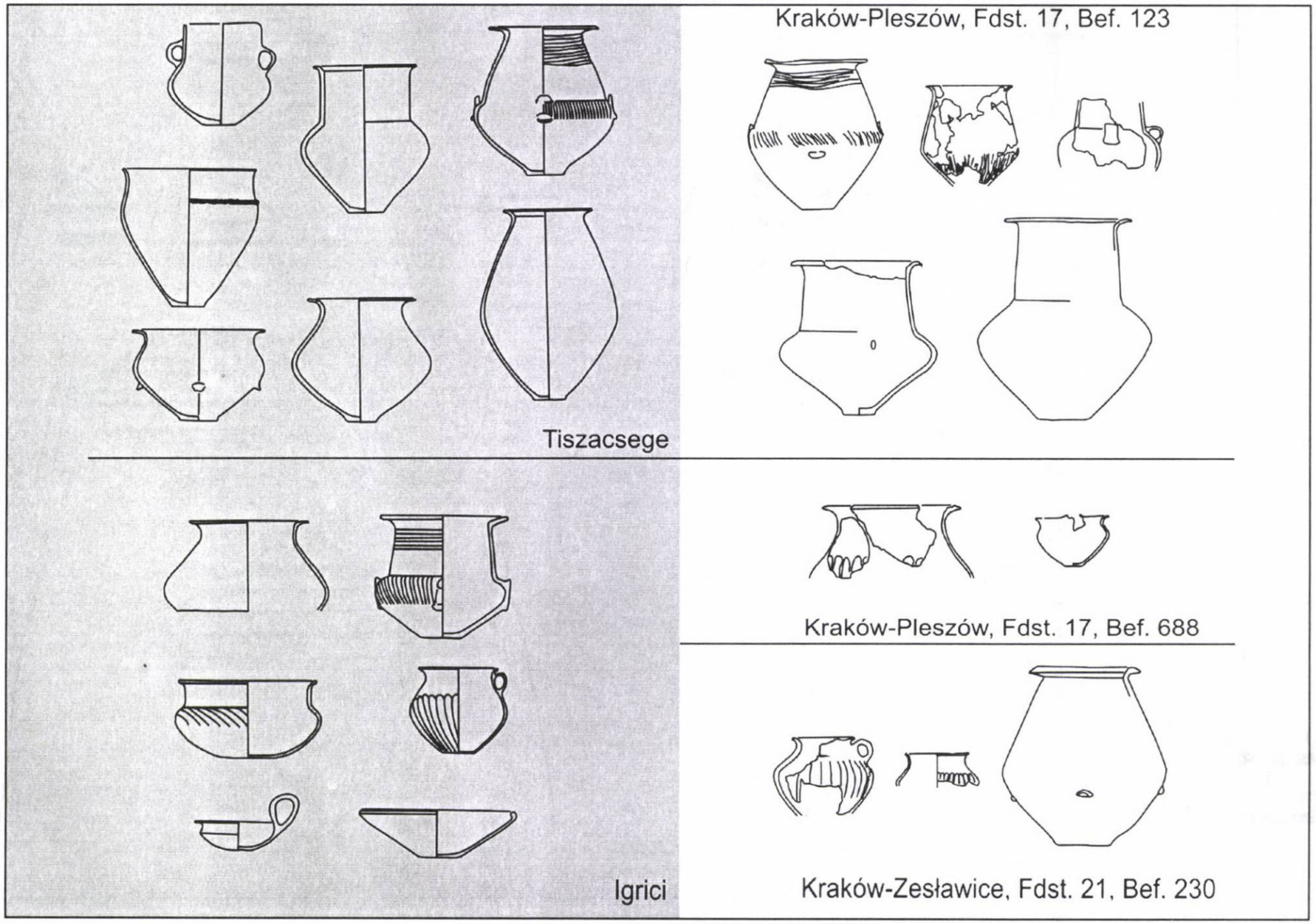

Abb. 9. Ein Vergleich der kannelierten Keramik aus westlichem Kleinpolen (Materialien aus der Siedlung in Kraków-Pleszów) und aus mittlerem Theis-Gebiet (Inventare der Keramikdepotfunde von Tiszacsege und Igrici, nach Szabó 2004).

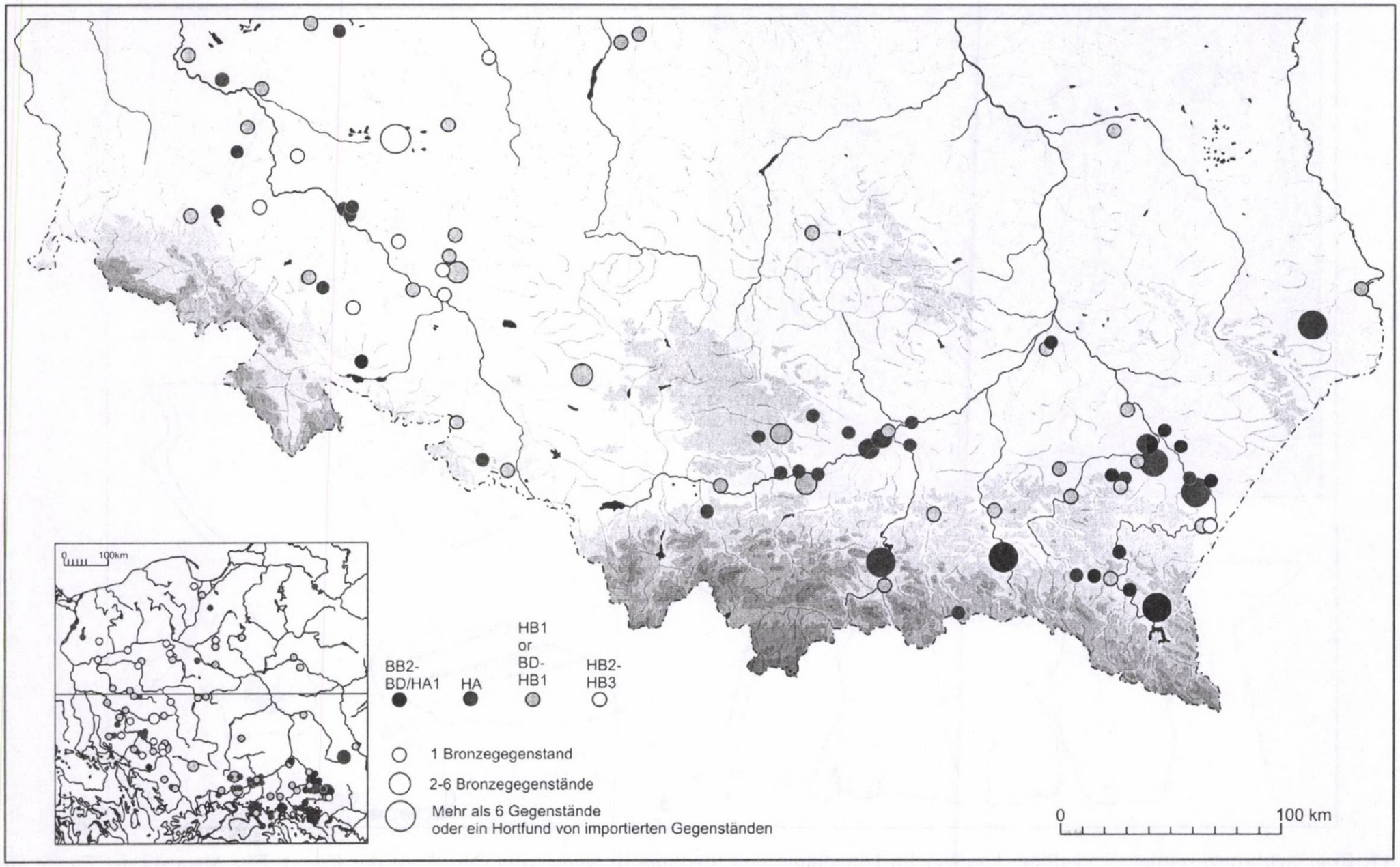

Abb. 10. Verbreitung der bronzezeitliche Bronzegegenstände „südlicher" Herkunft auf polnischem Gebiet.

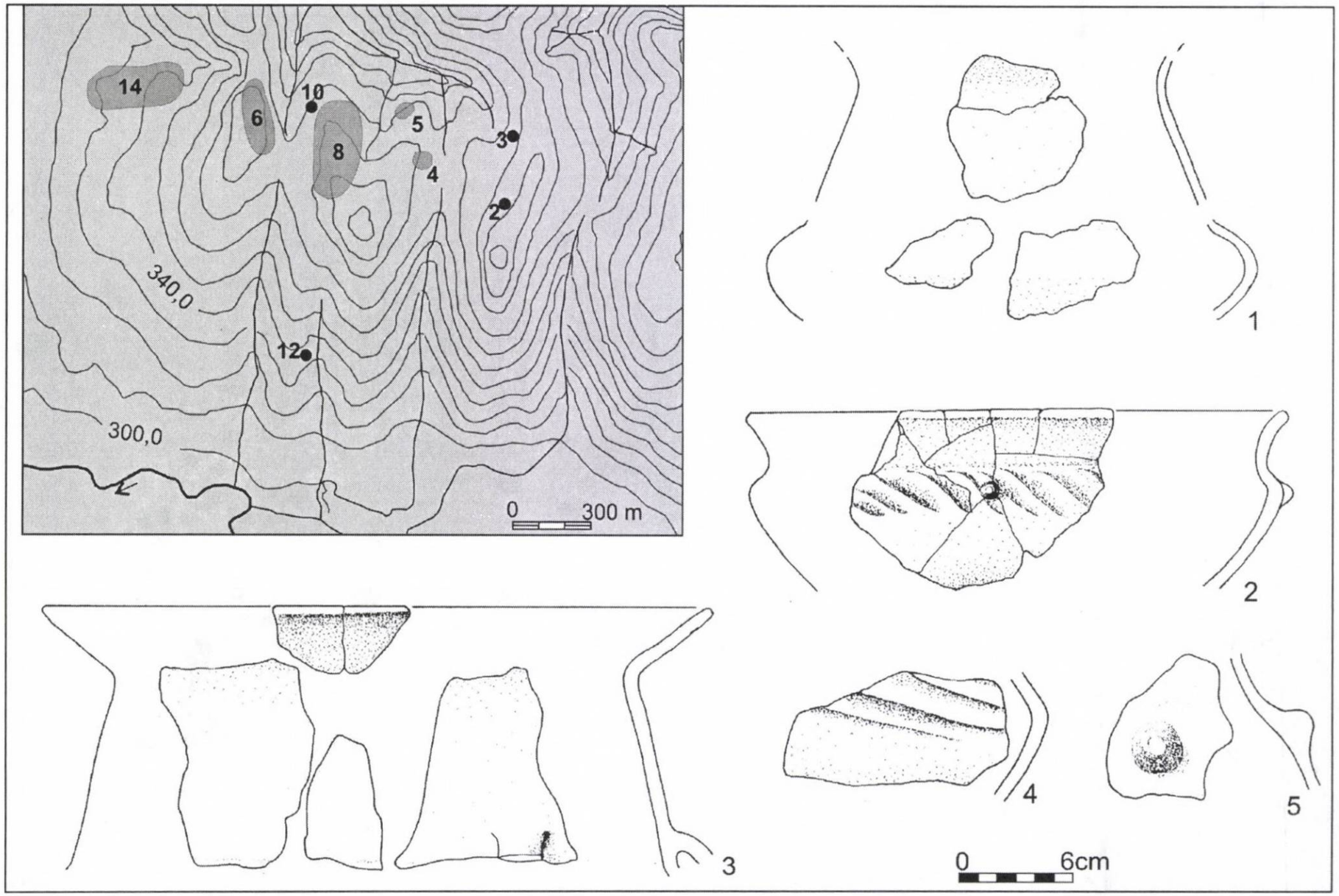

Abb. 11. Eine spätbronzezeitlichen Siedlungskammer im Umgebung von Siedlung in Nienaszów (Nr. 8 auf der Karte). Ein Auswahl der Funde aus dieser Fundstelle. Alle Zeichnungen nach Cieślik/Gancarski/Madej 1991.

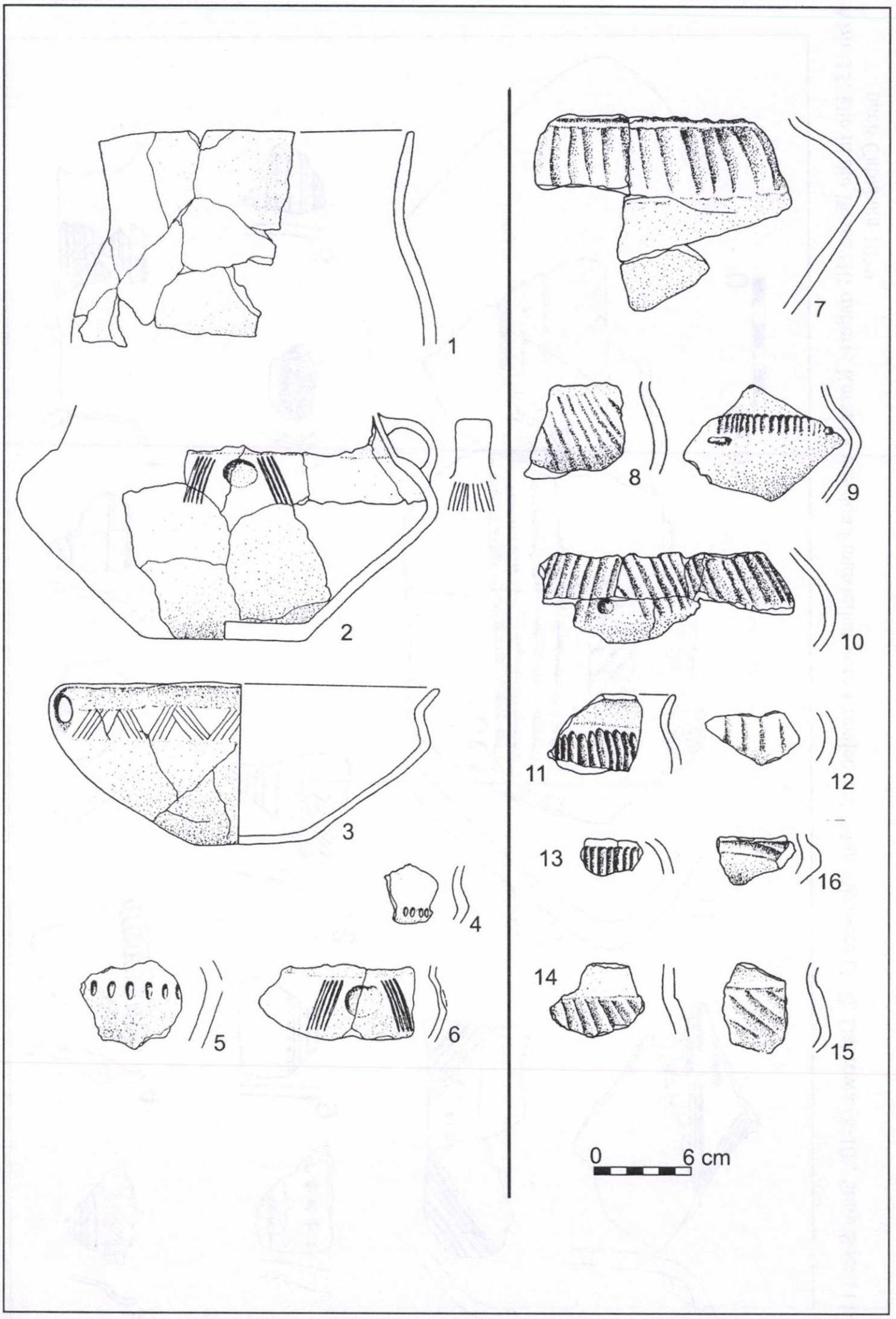

Abb. 12. Die in die Phase HA datierte Keramik der „nördlichen" (1-6) und „südlichen" (7-15) Tradition aus der Siedlung in Marcinkowice.

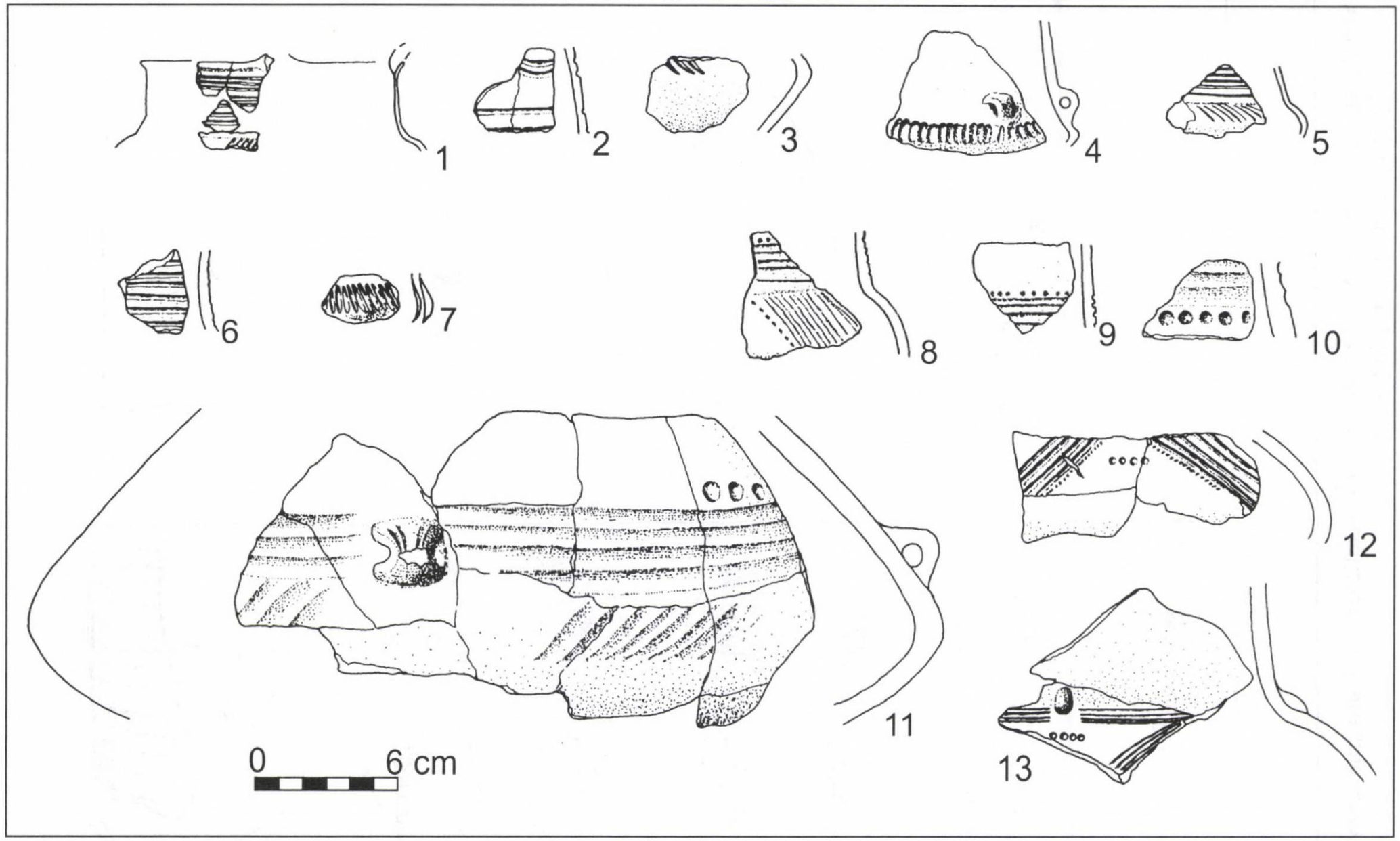

Abb. 13. Die in die Phase HB datierte Keramik aus den Fundstellen vom Dunajec-Tal: Marcinkowice (1-7), Dąbrowa (8-10), Stary Sącz (11-13). 12-13 nach Cabalska 1979.

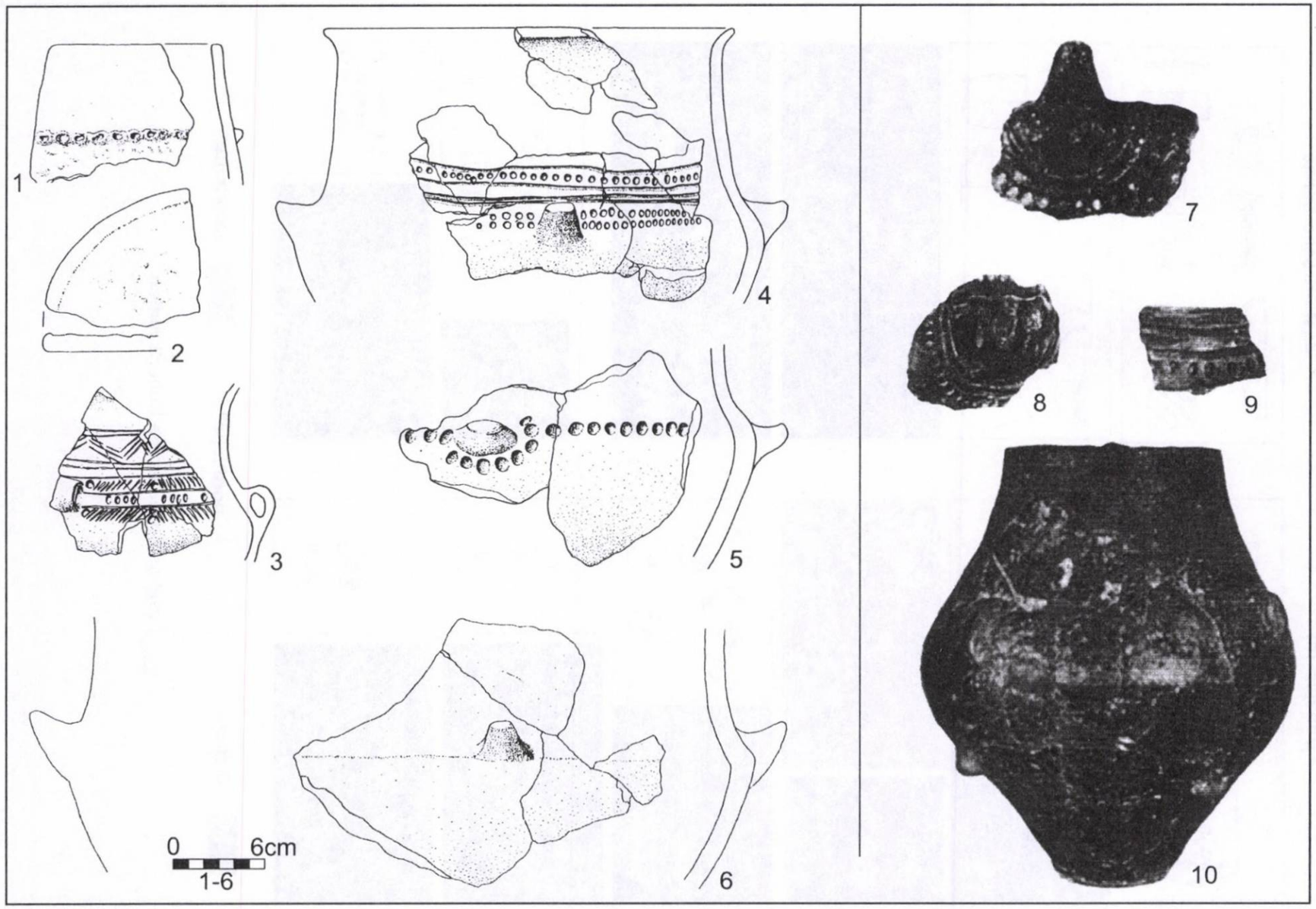

Abb. 14. Die Keramik der post-Gáva Tradition aus den Siedlungen in Maszkowice (1-5) und Nowy Sącz-Biegonice (6) im Dunajec-Tal und aus der Hochensiedlung in Terňa in der Ostslowakei (7-10). 3 nach Cabalska 1977; 6 nach Cabalska/Madyda-Legutko/Tunia 1990; 7-10 nach Budinský-Krička 1976.

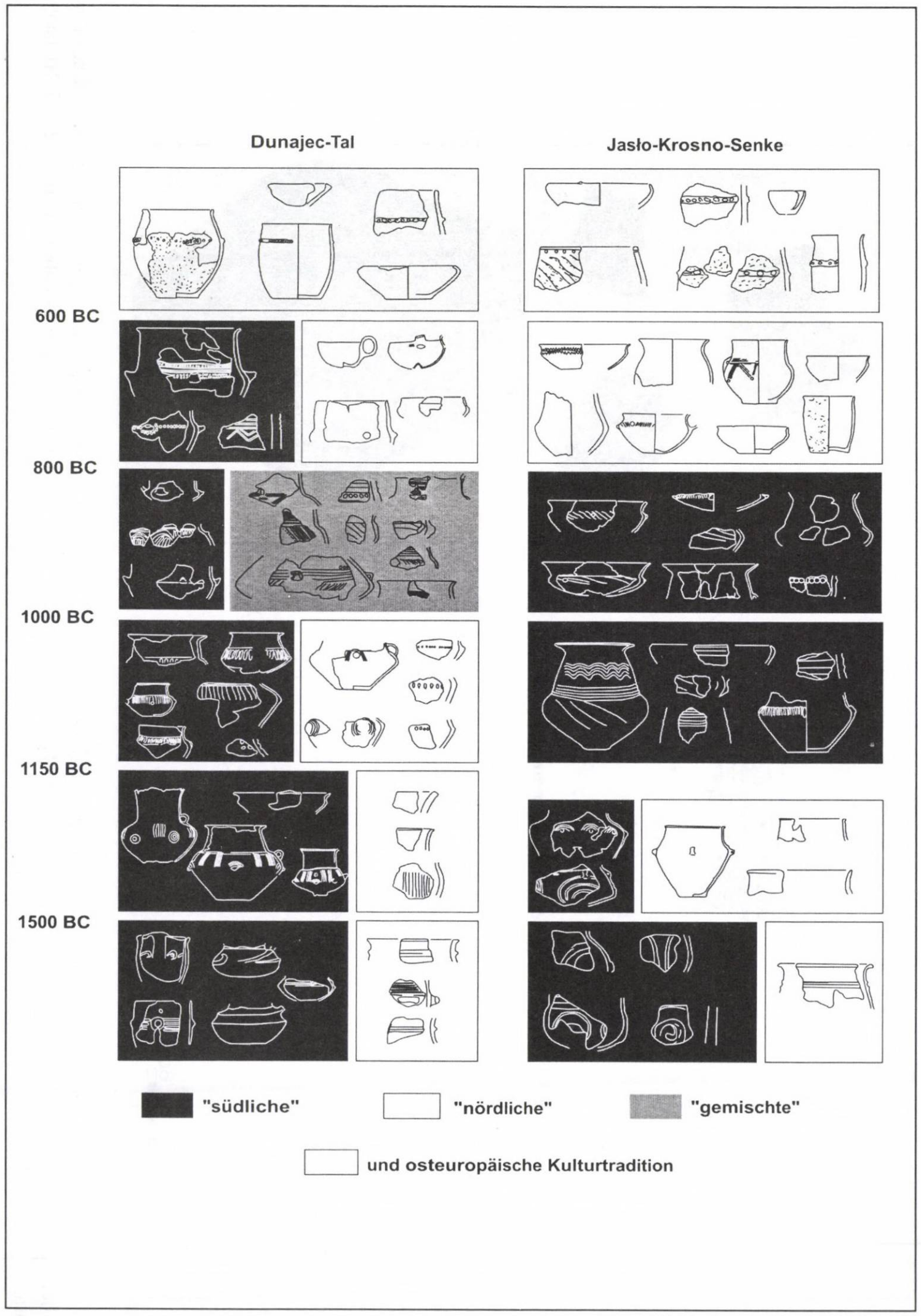

Abb. 15. Eine Asymmetrie in der Kulturentwicklung der polnischen Karpatenzone.

Neue Angaben zur spätbronzezeitlichen Besiedlung in Südtransdanubien

Péter Polgár

I. Forschungsstand

Die Forschung der Region fusste lange Zeit übewiegend auf alten Angaben und Begehungen, mit ziemlich vielen weissen Flecken[1]. Eine Aufschwung kam seit dem Ende der siebziger Jahre mit dem Beginn der grossen Investitionen, die in den neunzigen Jahren einen besonders raschen Anstoss nahmen. Daraus können Das Klein–Balaton–Projekt (1979–1992)[2] und die Bauarbeiten der Autobahn M7[3] hervorgehoben werden, denen grossflächige Präventativausgrabungen vorangingen. (Abb. 1.) Abgesehen von den Nachteilen und den Schwierigkeiten der so sich ausgestalteten neuen Methodik ermöglichten diese archäologischen Freilegungen, grössere, zusammenhängende Flächen, bzw. anliegende kleinere Räume systematisch durchgeforscht zu werden. Der Verleich der so sich angehäuften Informationsmenge mit den bereits bekannten Angaben kann eine komplexe Wissenschaft ergeben, auch in Hinsicht unserer Periode. Die Monographien von Erzsébet Patek und Frigyes Kőszegi, bzw. die von Amália Mozsolics geben dazu eine grundlegende Beihilfe, die die Publikationen von Szilvia Honti in Bezug auf Komitat Somogy[4] und László Horváth in Bezug auf Komitat Zala[5] mit den neuen Angaben ergänzen.

II. Themendefinition

Mein Vortrag knüpft sich an die Thematik meiner noch in Vorbereitung stehenden Dissertation[6], in der ich aufgrund der in den letzten Jahren in der Spurlinie der Autobahn M7 am südlichen Balatonufer neu freigelegten Fundorte die urnenfelderzeitliche Entwicklung einer geographisch gut absonderbaren Mikroregion zu untersuchen versuche. Die Abhandlung basiert sich auf die Vollaufarbeitung der spätbronzezeitlichen Materialien von 4 Fundstellen (Abb. 2.), was für die optimale topographische Abdeckung mit Begehungsangaben ergänzt werden. Das so berührte Areal ist eine mit meridionalen Tälern gegliederte Uferstrecke von dem Klein–Balaton bis Balatonszemes (Abb. 3.), die vor der Korrektion das natürliche Überschwemmungsgebiet des Sees bildete. Darum ist es auch wichtig, weil die Schwankungen der Wasserhöhe die Ansiedlungsmöglichkeiten in den einzelnen Zeitabschnitten hier besonders stark beeinflussten, sogar erreichte der See seine grösste urzeitliche Ausdehnung eben in der behandelten Periode[7]. (Abb. 4.) Es reicht schon weit über die Rahmen des Vortrags hinaus, wie das derzeit herrschende sog. subboreale Klima auf die Anschwellungen am Balaton einwirkte. Neuerdings befasst sich Gábor Serlegi, Mitarbeiter des Archäologischen Instituts der Ungarischen Akademie der Wissenschaften mit dieser Problematik. Zwar kann fast die ganze Epoche in der ausgewählten Mikroregion verfolgt werden, verschiebt sich die Datierung der Befunde doch zu den frühen und älteren Phasen hin. Die auffallend geringe Anwesenheit der jüngeren und späten Phase scheint auch durch die neueren Ausgrabungen bestätigt zu werden.

Ich habe deshalb zwei Fundorte zum Vorstellen gewählt. Balatonszemes - Egyenes-dűlő stellt die Übergangsphase aus der späten Hügelgräber - und in die frühe Urnenfelderzeit dar, und Tikos–Homokgödrök die ältere Phase der Urnenfelderkultur. Beide können als ufernahe Siedlungen bestimmt werden, die sich je auf einem niederliegenden Hügelrücken erstreckten.

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[1] Wosinszky 1896.; Kuzsinszky 1920.; Draveczky–Sági–Takács 1964; Kocztur 1964.
[2] Költő–Vándor 1996.
[3] Bondár–Honti–Kiss 2000, 94–114.; Honti Et al. 2002, 3–36.; Honti et al. 2004, 3–70.; Honti Et al. 2007, 7–70.
[4] Honti 1987 (Mit Fundortkataster Und Zusammenfassung Neueren Forschungsergebnissen); Honti–Költő - Németh 1988. 5–42., Honti 1993. 147–155.; Belényesy–Honti–Kiss 2007.
[5] Horváth 1989. 36–45., Horváth 1994. 219–235., Horváth 1994. 85–141.
[6] „Siedlungen Der Urnenfelderzeit (R Bd–Hab) In Südwesttransdanubien (Komitat Somogy)".
[7] Sümegi et al. 2004. 410., Abb. 18.

III. Die Vorstellung der Fundorte

Balatonszemes–Egyenes-dűlő[8]

Der Fundort liegt etwa in der Mitte am südlichen Ufer des Balatons, vom jetzigen Uferrand ungefähr 1 km entfernt. (Abb. 5.) Die Siedlungserscheinungen werden nur durch zerstreut liegende Lehm–und Abfallgruben, bzw. durch Grubenkomplexe belegt, deren genaueren funktionellen Bestimmung nicht möglich ist. (Abb. 6.) Der Fundort ist eher aus chronologischer Hinsicht interessant, einerseits bezüglich der inneren Gliederung der Hügelgräberzeit, andererseits in Zusammenhang der nachfolgenden Urnenfelderkultur. Die Keramik, die den Grossteil des Fundmaterials bildet, zeigt die Form–und Ziermerkmale der klassischen und späten Phase der Hügelgräberkultur, aber es können darin auch für die den Zeitabschnitt einführende sog. Koszider–Periode charakteristische Elemente aufgefunden werden, wie zum Beispiel ein auf kleinen Knubbenfüssen stehende Krugtyp mit gestrecktem Trichterhals und gedrücktem Bauch, bzw. seine Formvarianten. In dieselben frühen Formenkreis reihen sich die grössere Töpfe mit hinausgedrückten runden Buckeln, die eingestochene Punkte umfangen. Als besonders interessant sind die Tassen, die am Rand und am Henkel mit aus eingestempelten kleinen Kreisen und konzentrischen Kreisen stehenden Reihen verziert sind, zu erwähnen. Bei ihnen lässt sich die Nachlasssenschaft der Kultur der inkrustierten Keramik erkennen. Schon auf die Umwandlung in den frühen Abschnitt der Urnenfelderzeit weisen die Objekte hin, aus denen Einzugsrandschalen mit schräger Kannelur oder Fazettierung, bzw. ohne Verzierung, und Töpfe mit innen fazettiertem Rand ans Tageslicht kamen. Diese Objekte sondern sich von den reinen hügelgräberzeitlichen nicht ab, und bilden auch keine geschlossene Einheit. Die zwei möchte ich aus denen hervorheben, bei denen auch der Koszider–Krugtyp miterscheint. (Abb. 7.) Aufgrund der Gesagten können wir annehmen, dass die Fundstelle wegen günstiger Umstände längere Zeit besiedelt war. Die Erscheinungen der in der direkten Umgebung dokumentierten anderen Fundorte (Szemesi–berek[9], Szemesi–csomópont[10]) weisen bei geringer hügelgräberzeitlichen Anwesenheit ausgedrückt nach die Urnenfelderkultur hin.

Tikos–Homokgödrök[11]

Bezüglich der geographischen Lage der Fundstelle muss betont werden, dass sie sich eigentlich nicht direkt am Balaton, sondern eher am Kleinen Balaton, von der gegenwärtigen Uferlinie des Sees etwa 8 km entfernt, befindet, der sich einst an der Mündung des Flusses Zala in Richtung Süd–Nord ausbreitete. (Abb. 8.) In diesem Fall steht eine viel komplexere Informationsmenge uns zur Verfügung, indem wir auch in das innere System und in das Lebewesen der Einwohner der auf die ältere Urnenfelderzeit datierbare Siedlung einen Einblick erhalten können. (Abb. 9.) Es weist auf eine gewisse innere Gliederung hin, dass die Lehm–und Abfallgruben und Grubenkomplexe überwiegend den mittleren und den südlichen Teil der Siedlung bilden, während sich die in mehreren Gruppen stehenden bodenständigen Häuserstellen mit Pfostenkonstruktion im nördlichen und teilweise im östlichen konzentrieren. (Abb. 10.) Es ist gut bemerkbar, dass die mit Gruben verschiedener Grösse und Form bedeckte Fläche von drei beträchtlichen Grubenkomplexen bestimmt ist, auf die ich bei dem Fundmaterial noch zurückkomme. Von Norden, nach das sumpfige Gebiet wird die Siedlung von einem Ost–West gerichteten Graben abgegrenzt. Die bodenständigen Häuserstellen mit Pfostenkonstruktion sind SO–NW gerichtet, und im allgemeinen sind sie einräumig. (Abb. 11.) Ihre durchschnittliche Grösse beträgt 7–10 m x 3 m, aber das eine Gebäude in der nördlichen Gruppe hebt sich sowohl durch seine Grösse, als auch durch seine innere Gliederung hervor, das 23x6 m gross war und bestand aus mehreren Räumen. Es zeigt mit grosser Wahrscheinlichkeit die Absonderung der Wohn–und Arbeitsplatzes, dass die zwei dokumentierten Öfen ziemlich weit enfernt, südlich von den Häusern lagen. Die Bewohner

[8] Serlegi 2004. 29–31.
[9] Honti–Németh 2002. 6.
[10] Hansel 2004. 60–61.
[11] Serlegi 2004. 45.

übten mehrerlei Tätigkeiten aus, was die Ton -, Knochen -, Stein–und Metallwerkzeuge ebenso bestätigen. Ein bisschen detaillierter möchte ich jetzt auf die Werkzeuge des Spinnens und Webens, bzw. auf die bronzenen Gegenstände eingehen, weil deren auffallend grosse Zahl eine bedeutsame hausgewerbliche Tätigkeit vermuten lässt, und im Falle der Metallgegenstände ergibt sich auch die Frage der Deponierung. Zu den insgesamt 45 Tongewichten zählen sich 63 Spinnwirtel hin, die noch mit 7 Keramikscheiben aus abgerundeten Scherben ergänzt werden können, die nach manchen Annahmen auch für Spinnwirtel vorbereitet waren. Es is aber merkwürdig, dass nur zwei als Spulen bestimmbaren Gegenstände dazukommen. Wenn wir auf die Bronzen übergehen, fällt uns neben der Variabilität der Typen vor allem ihre aussergewöhnlich grosse Zahl auf. In diesem aus 171 Stücken bestehenden Bronzefund dominieren eindeutig die Schmukstücke (lanzenspitzenförmige Anhänger, Tutuli, Arm–und Fussringe, Fingerringe, Halsringe, Röhrchen, Nadeln) im Vergleich zu den Arbeitzeugen (Ahlen, Meissel, Sichel) und Waffen (Lanzenspitze, Dolch). Unter den Schmuckstücken kommen die Nadeln in der grössten Zahl vor, typologisch können wir Nähnadeln, Keulenkopfnadeln, Kugelkopfnadeln, Nagelkopfnadeln, Spindelkopfnadeln, Rollenkopfnadeln und Nadeln mit doppelkonischem Kopf unterscheiden. Diese Menge von Metallgegenständen lässt schon durchaus eine bewusste Anhäufung vermuten, deren Anlass vorläufig unklar ist. Obwohl die lokale Metallbearbeitung auch nicht ganz ausgeschlossen werden kann, auf die einige Bronzeschlacken und Gusskuchen hinweisen, durfte ihre Bedeutung gering sein. Da unsere Typen in ihrer Komplexität in den Formenschatz der älteren urnenfelderzeitlichen Phase gesetzt werden können, so kann auch der Befund selbst mit der Charakteristik dieser Phase verbunden werden. Hier möchte ich zu den 3 Grubenkomplexen zurückkehren, die in den mittleren, westlichen und südwestlichen Teilen der Siedlung liegen. Es kann bemerkt werden, dass sich die Metalfunde überwiegend auf diesen Flächen konzentrieren, bzw. werden sie mit denen der sich am NW–lichen Rand gruppierenden Objekten ergänzen. Besonders auffallend ist es bei den Nadeln. Ich muss betonen, dass diese Behauptung unter anderen auch für die Spinnwirtel oder für die durchgebohrenen kugelförmigen Steingewichte, die viellecht als Fischnetzetzgewichte benutzt wurden. (Abb. 12.) In der nördlichen und östlichen Hälfte der Siedlung aber, das heisst, in der direkten Umgebung der Häuser kommen fast kaum Gebauchsgegenstände vor. Kurz möchte ich noch das Keramikmaterial vorstellen. Sowohl die Haushaltskeramik, als auch die Feinkeramik zeigt einen grossen Formenreichtum. Auf die ausführlichere Analysierung der einzelnen Typen würde ich jetzt nicht eingehen, das muss aber bemerkt werden, dass die für die späte Phase der vorangehenden Hügelgräberzeit charakteristische Formenwelt in der sich auf Töpfe, Schalen und Schüsseln, Tassen gliedernden Keramikeinheit stark geprägt ist, vor allem bei den Töpfen und Tassen. Da sich die Formen der Späthügelgräberzeit und die der älteren Urnenfelderzeit voneinander eindeutig nicht abzusondern scheinen, können wir annehmen, dass die früheren Elemente im Leben der Siedlung auch längere Zeit in Gebrauch blieben. Aus der direkten Umgebung des Fundortes haben wir mehrere Angaben für die hügelgräberzeitlichen Ansiedlungen, und den Kreis ein bisschen ausgebreitet, müssen wir das bei Sávoly freigelegten Hügelgrab, etwa 5 km entfernt von unserer Fundstelle, erwähnen, das nach der Bestimmung der Ausgräberin Szilvia Honti auf die späte Hügelgräberzeit zu datieren ist[12]. Bei Balatonmagyaród[13] 7 km entfernt und bei Vörs[14] 3 km entfernt wurden allerdings schon späthügelgräber–frühurnenfelderzeitliche Urnengräber entdeckt, und bei den letzteren Gräberfeldern wurden Bestattungen bis in die HaA2 Periode beobachtet.

IV. Zusammenfassung

Abschliessend möchte ich ein skizziertes Bild über die Verhältnisse der spätbronzezeitlichen Ansiedlungen in Südtransdanubien aufreissen, das der jetzige Stand der Forschung widezuspiegeln pflegt, und benötigt natürlich weitere Analysierungen. Zur

[12] Honti 1996. 235–248.
[13] Horváth 1994. 219–235.
[14] Honti 1996. 67–71.

Vorstellung verwende ich Kőszegi's Periodisierung[15], bei der er die Urnenfelderzeit in Transdanubien auf 5 Phasen gliedert. Die von ihm zusammengestellten Siedlungs–und Gräberfelderpläne ergänzte ich mit den neuen Befunden der vergangenen 20 Jahren, die zum Teil auch die weissen Flecken abdecken.

Die erste Phase (Abb. 13.) schildert den Übergang aus der Späthügelgräber–in die ältere Urnenfelderzeit. Wie wir es bei Balatonszemes–Egyenes-dűlő beobachteten, erscheinen die neuen Elemente, die auf eine Umwandlung deuten, noch unter hügelgräberzeitlicher Dominanz. Wenn wir aber mit der 2. Phase einen Vergleich machen, fällt es auf, dass dieser Übergang ohne wesentlichen Bruch stattfand, ja in dem Fundmaterial unserer anderen Fundstelle, Tikos–Homokgödrök kommen die Hügelgräbermerkmale noch in ziemlich grosser Zahl vor. Es kann auch beobachtet werden, dass die ersten Urnenfeldersiedlungen in den meisten Fällen an den Stellen der früheren Hügelgräbersiedlungen oder in deren direkten Nähe entstanden, stellenweise sogar viel konzentrierter. Gräberfelder kennen wir zwar nur in geringerer Zahl, ergibt sich aber die Frage, wieweit die bei Vörs freigelegten drei nah aneineinderliegenden Gräberfelder als eine seltene Erscheinung betrachtet werden können. In der 2. Phase (Abb. 14.), die die ältere Urnenfelderzeit bedeutet, können wir in Südtransdanubien mit einer ausserordentlich grossen Sidlungsdichte rechnen, über der Randgegend des Balatons auch bei fast allen Gewässern dieser wasserreichen Region. Schwerpunkte können eigentlich nicht bestimmt werden, und die bei Kőszegi angegebenen Erdburgen sind nur aufgrund Geländebegehungen zu vermuten, möglicherweise durften sie derzeit noch keine wirkliche Bedeutung haben. Die dritte Phase (Abb. 15) betrachtet Kőszegi als eine kurzzeitige Übergangsphase, die er mit der Kurd–Horizont abschliesst, an der Wende von HaA1 und HaA2, unmittelbar vor der jüngeren Periode der Urnenfelderkultur. Dieser Wendepunkt ist in Anbetracht unserer Mikroregion auch daher interessant, weil sie in einem scharfen Kontrast zu den vielfältigen Fundorteinheiten der sich dann entfaltenden sog. Váler Kultur[16] in Nordost–Transdanubien steht. Die vierte (Abb. 16) und fünfte (Abb. 17.) Phasen werden von verschwindend wenigen Fundorten im Vergleich zu den früheren vertreten, was–wie bereits gesagt–die neuen Befunde auch bestätigen. Diese Feststellung ist besonders treffend für den Raum am südlichen Balatonufer, der nach unseren jetzigen zur Verfügung stehenden Angaben fast ganz entvölkert wurde und der Schwerpunkt übergeht in den südlichen Teil Transdanubiens, was Kőszegi mit dem Vordrang der Váler Kultur nach Süden verbindet. Zu dieser Periode zählt er die bedeutsamen Erdburgen, wie zum Beispiel Pécs–Jakabhegy[17], Regöly–Földvár oder Nagyberki–Szalacska[18], aber dieselben Vorgang beobachtet er auch am Balaton, nur in geringerem Masse. Hier können Lengyeltóti–Tatárvár und Kéthely–Baglyashegy erwähnt werden, und noch Fonyód–Várhegy kann viellecht auch hierzu gerechnet werden. Die letzten drei sind auch dadurch interessant, weil ihre Anwesenheit der Verwanderungstheorie in gewissem Masse zu widersprechen scheint. Leider sind sowohl Lengyeltóti–Tatárvár, als auch Kéthely–Baglyashegy nur durch Begehungsangaben bekannt, und die spätbronzezeitliche Rolle von Fonyód–Várhegy ist nicht geklärt. Der Vorgang der Veränderungen der Besiedlungsumstände in der jüngeren urnenfelderzeitlichen Periode ist vorläufig unklar, ja während ein dichter wassernaher Siedlungsnetz in der Donauknie ensteht, entvölkert sich der wasserreriche südliche Raum Transdanubiens zum Teil fast völlig. Im Falle der Mikroregion am Balaton können wir theoretisch annehmen, dass ihre aus den geographischen Gegebenheiten folgende relative Isoliertheit auch eine Rolle dabei gespielt haben durften.

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[15] Kőszegi 1988. 19–57.
[16] Tompa 1935 - 36. 104., Patek 1955 173; Kőszegi 1960. 179; Petres 1960. 35–42; Patek 1960. 33–82: Polgár 2003. 68–82.
[17] Maráz 1987. 39–64.
[18] Honti 1984. 260; Honti 1985. 271.

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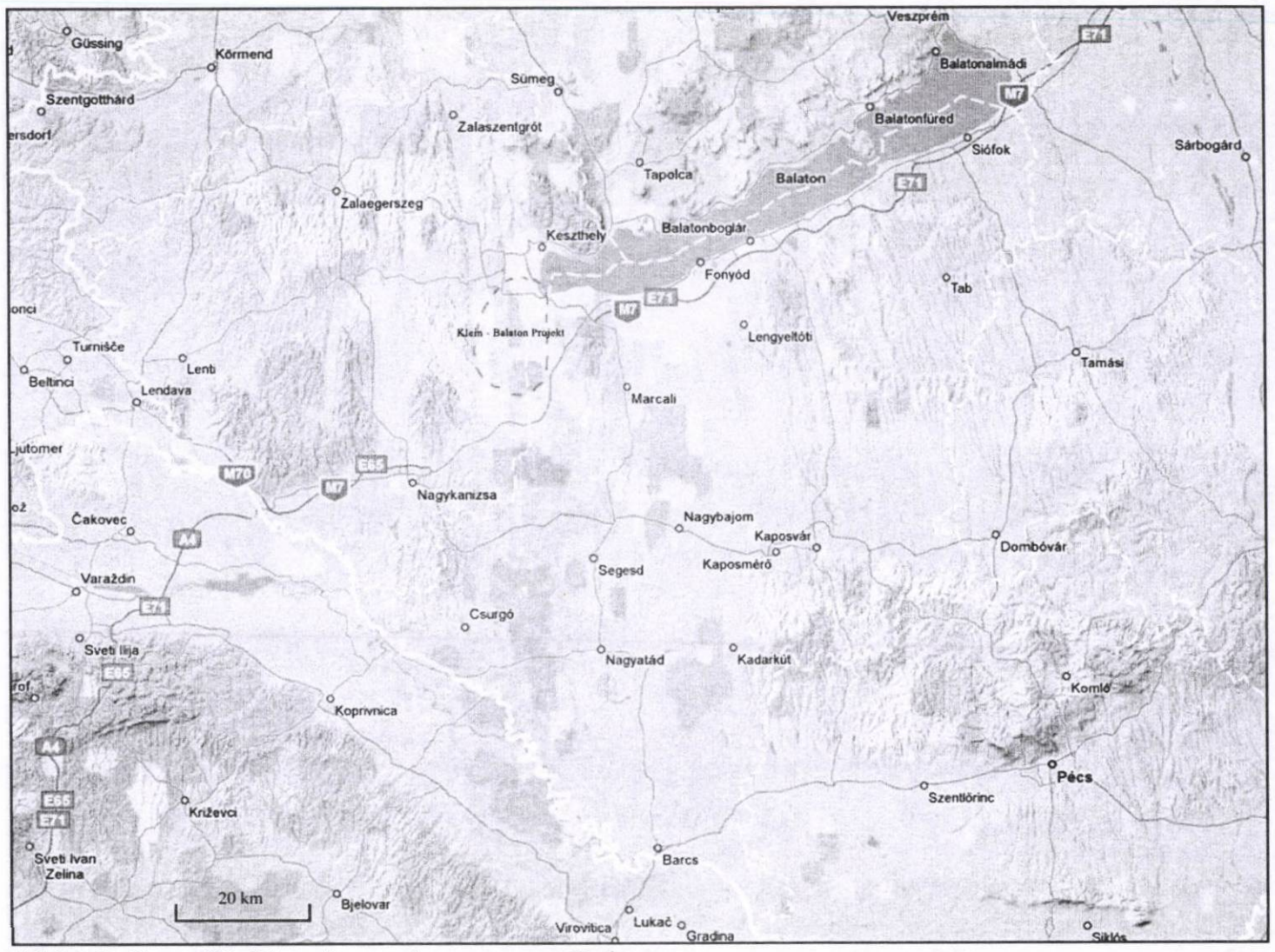


Abb. 1. Grossflächige Ausgrabungen am Balaton

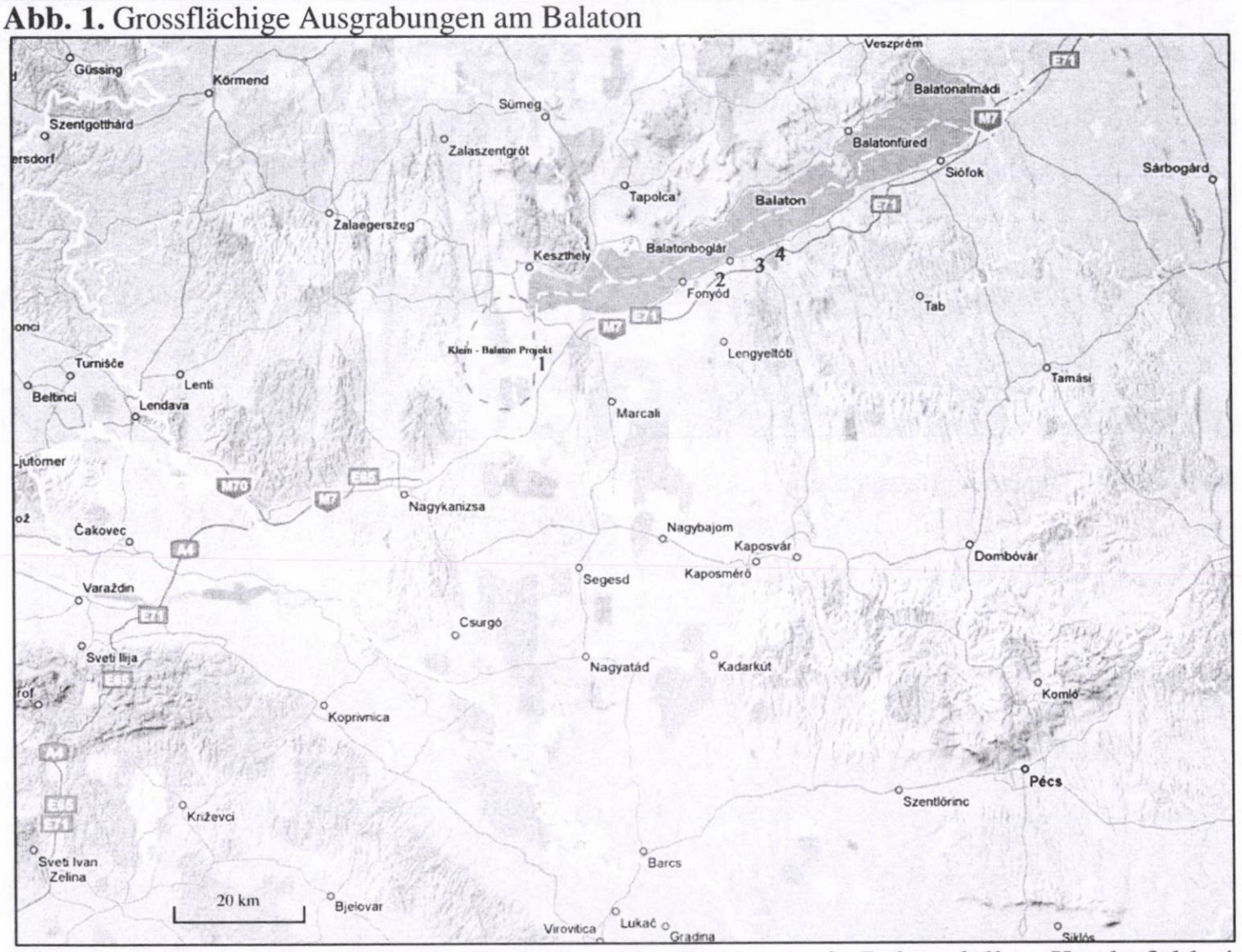


Abb. 2. 1: Tikos - Homokgödrök, 2: Ordacsehi - Bugaszeg, 3: Balatonlelle - Kenderföld, 4: Balatonszemes - Egyenes-dűlő

Abb. 3. Das Untersuchungsgebiet

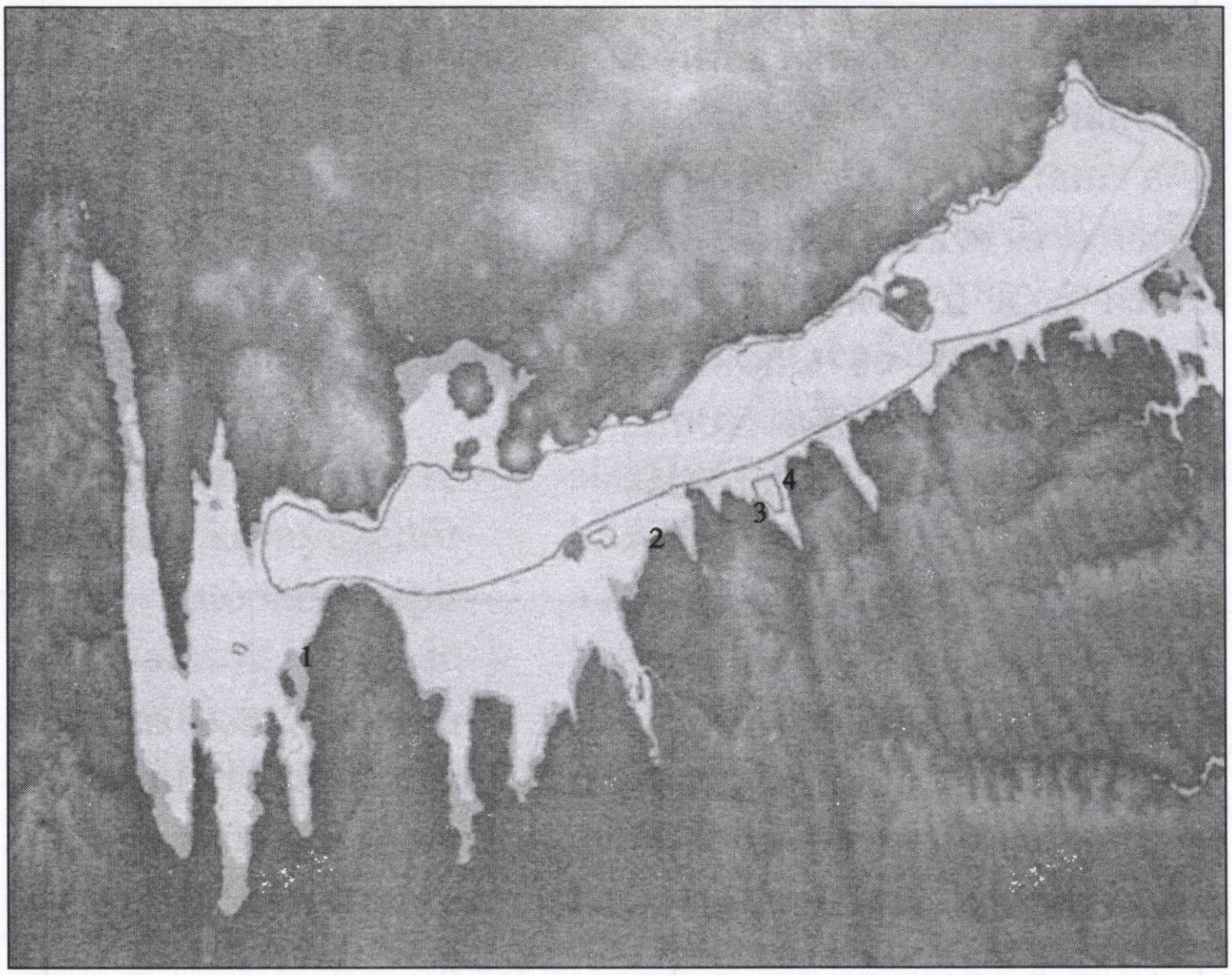


Abb. 4. Die grösste urzeitliche Ausdehnung des Balatons während der späten Bronzezeit und der älteren Eisenzeit (Sümegi et al. 2004., Abb. 18.)

Abb. 5. Balatonszemes - Egyenes-dűlő. Geographische Lage der Fundstelle

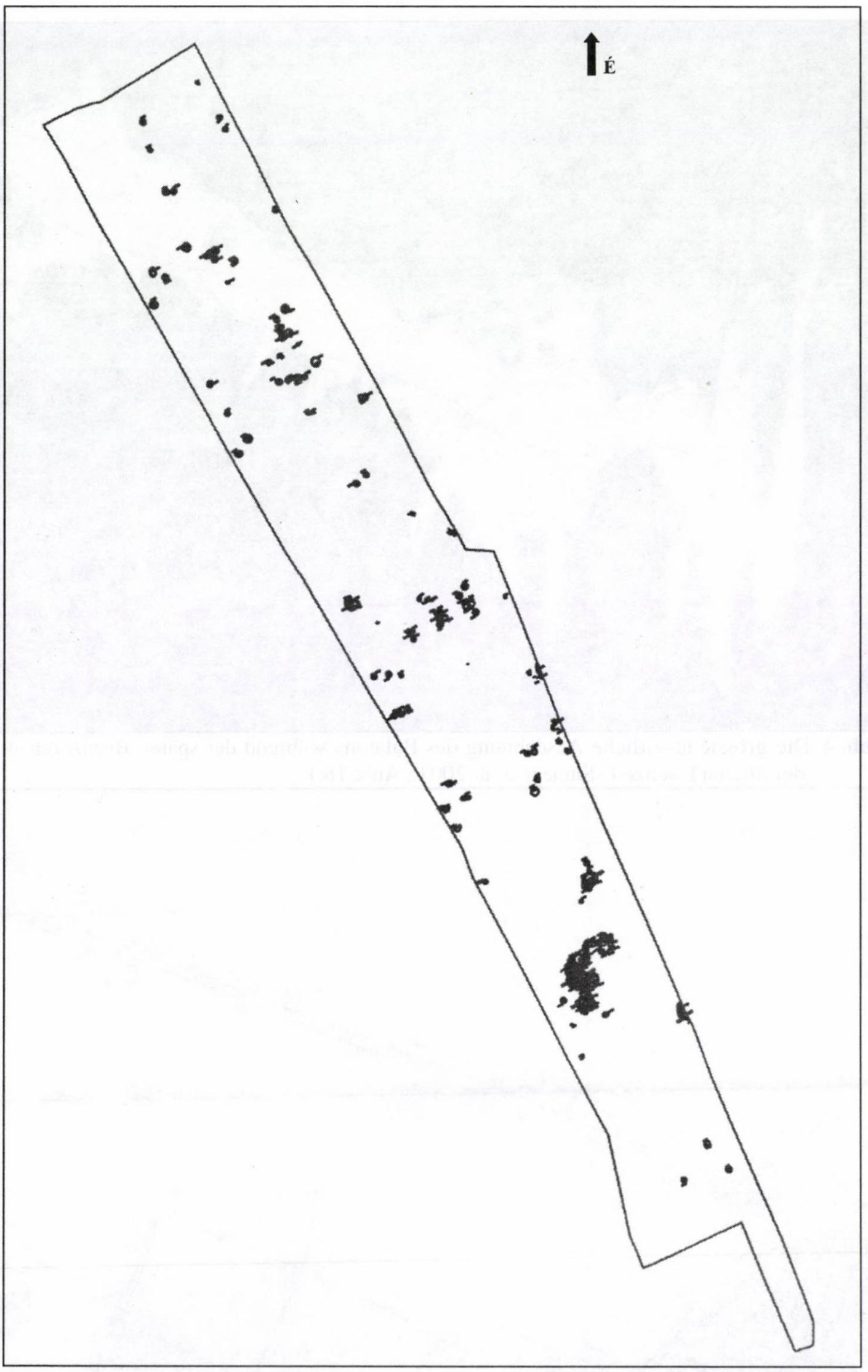


Abb. 6. Balatonszemes - Egyenes-dűlő. Gesamtplan der freigelegten Fläche mit den spätbronzezeitlichen Objekten

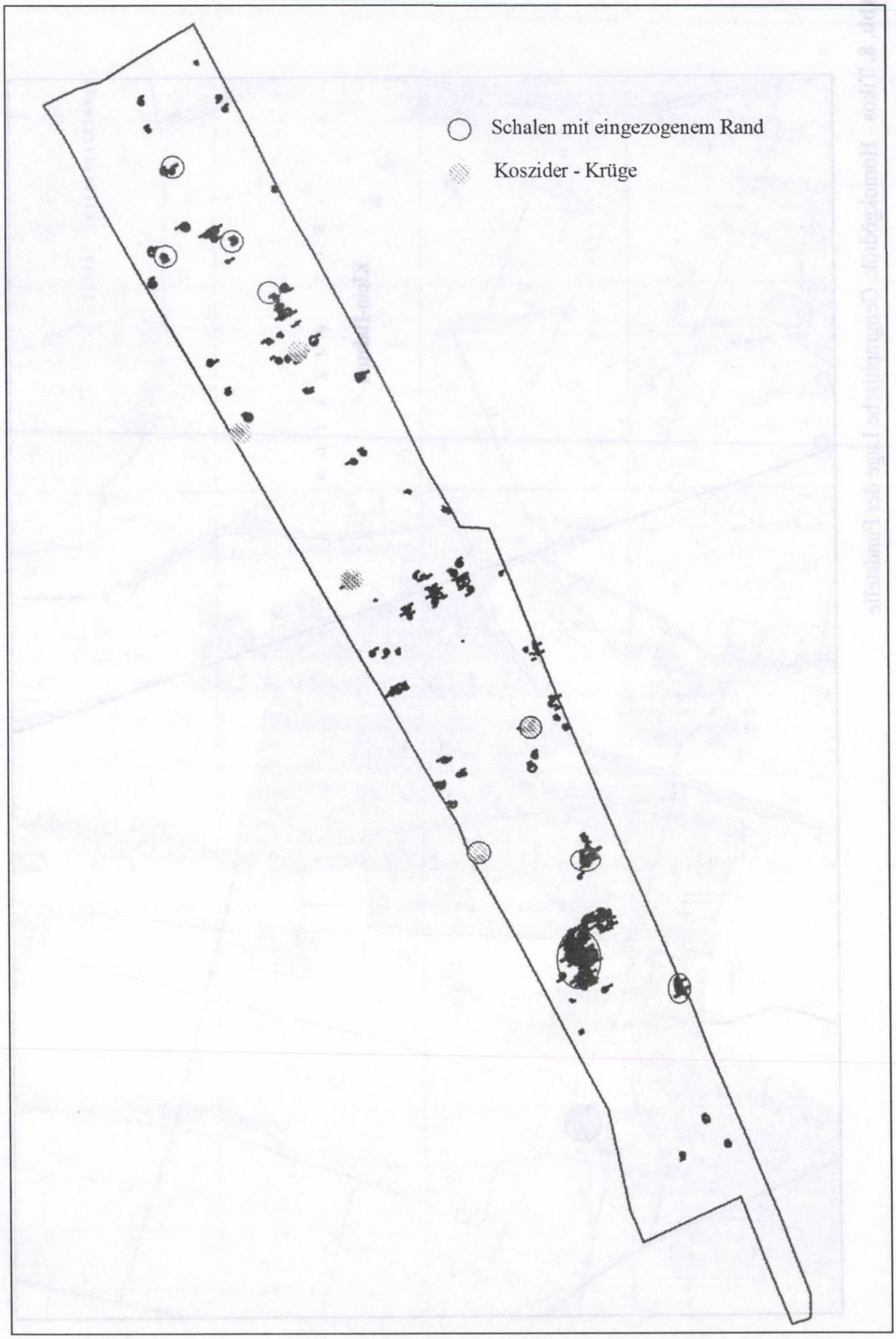


Abb. 7. Balatonszemes - Egyenes-dűlő. Koszider - und UK - Objekte

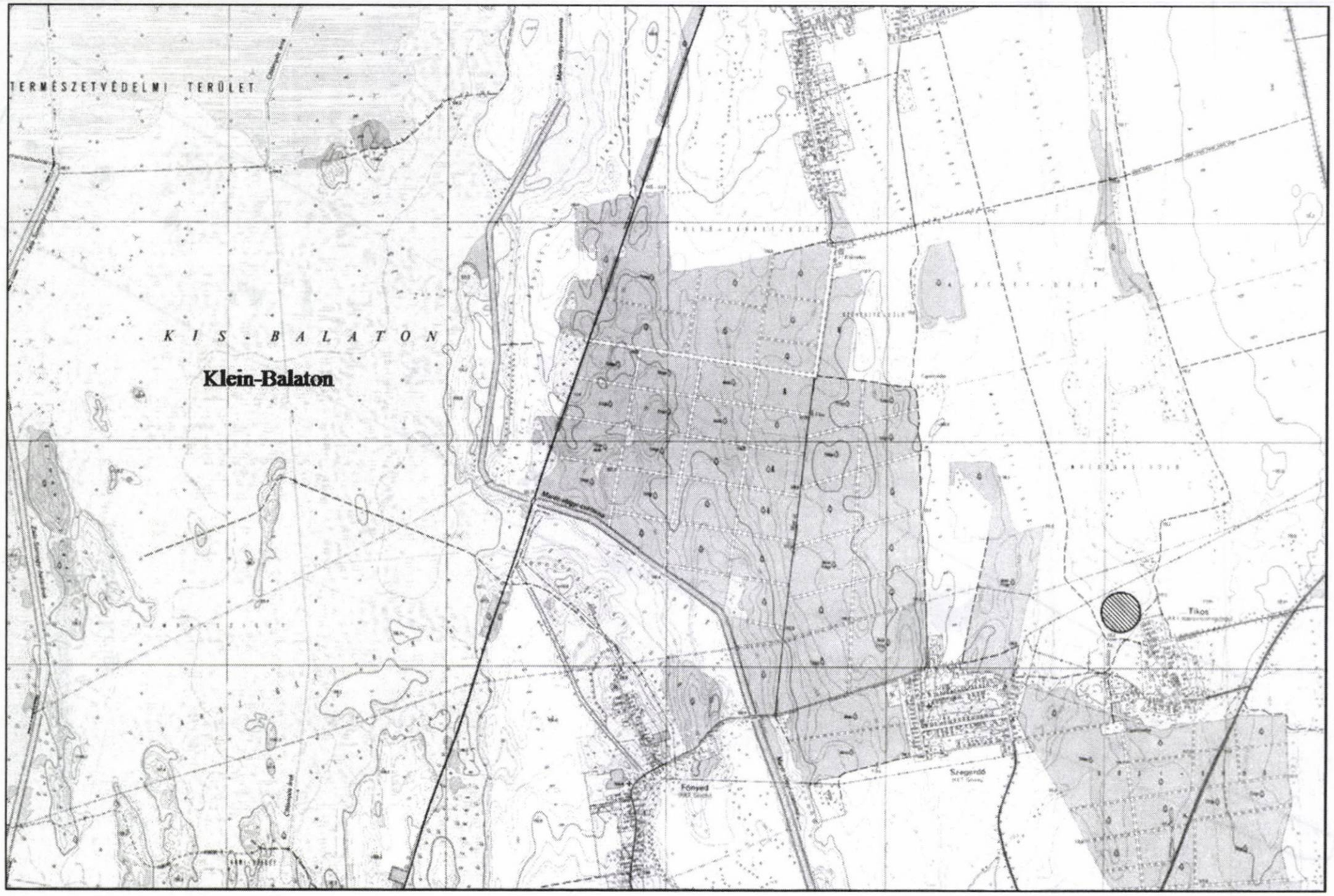


Abb. 8. Tikos - Homokgödrök. Geographische Lage der Fundstelle

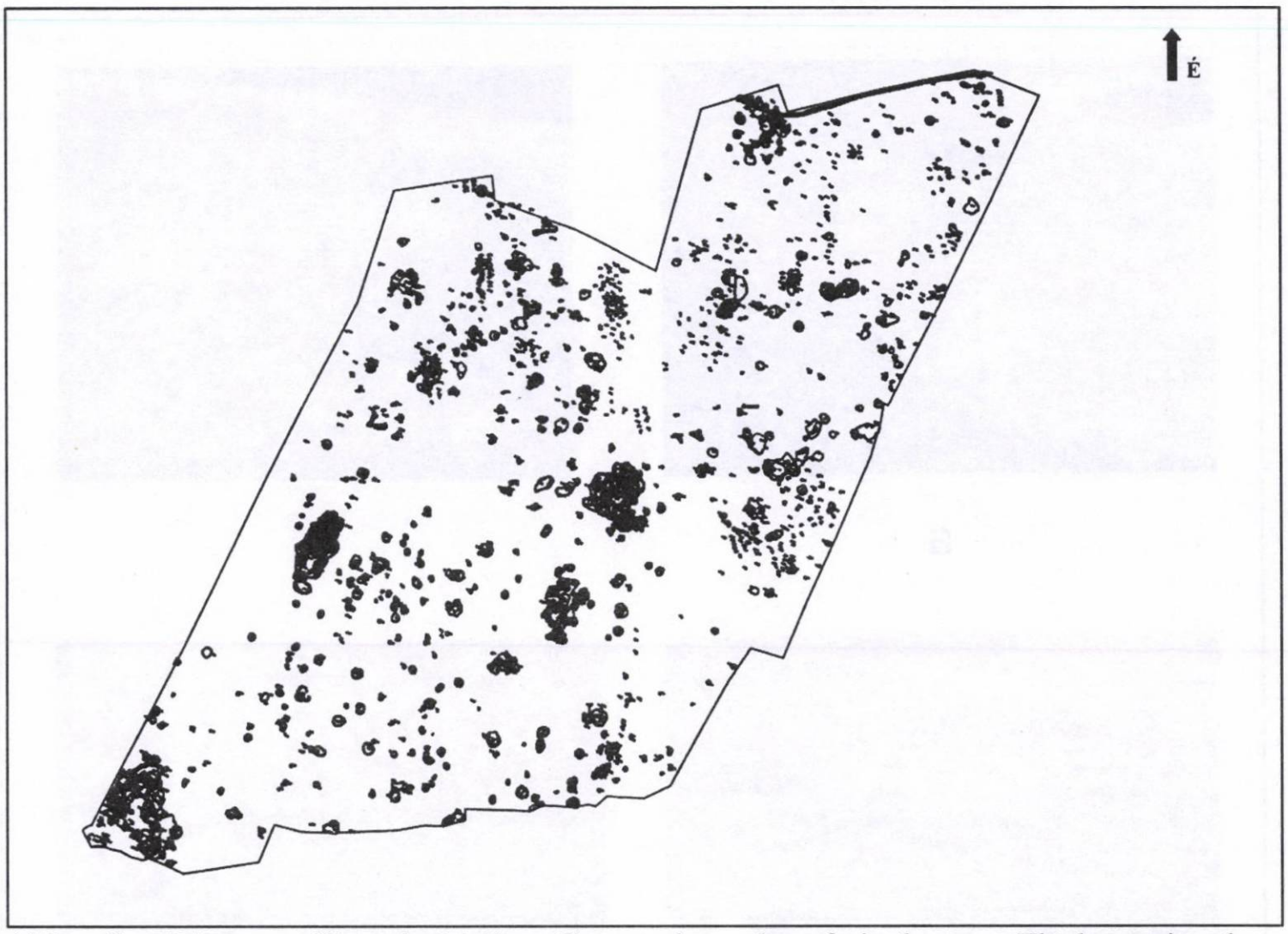
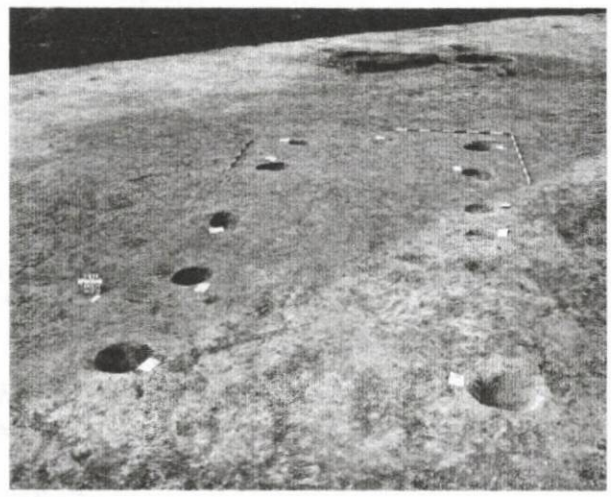


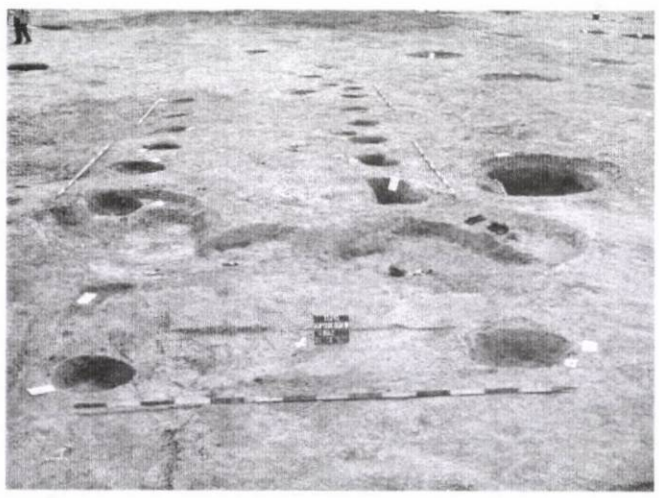
Abb. 9. Tikos - Homokgödrök. Gesamtplan der freigelegten Fläche mit den spätbronzezeitlichen Objekten

Abb. 10. Tikos - Homokgödrök. Die bestimmbaren spätbronzezeitlichen Häuserstellen

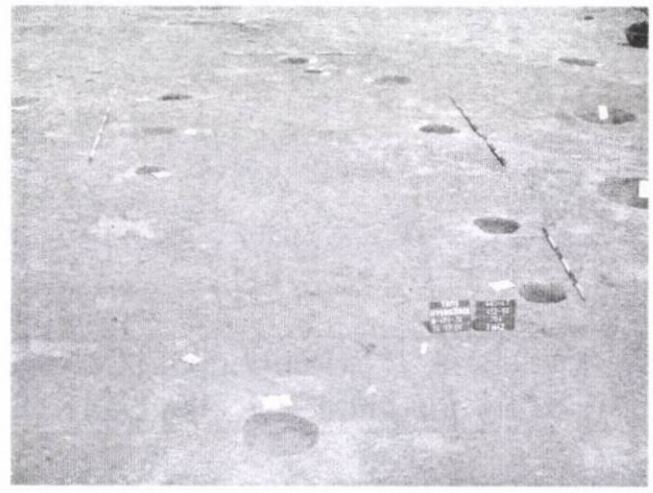
a



b



c



d

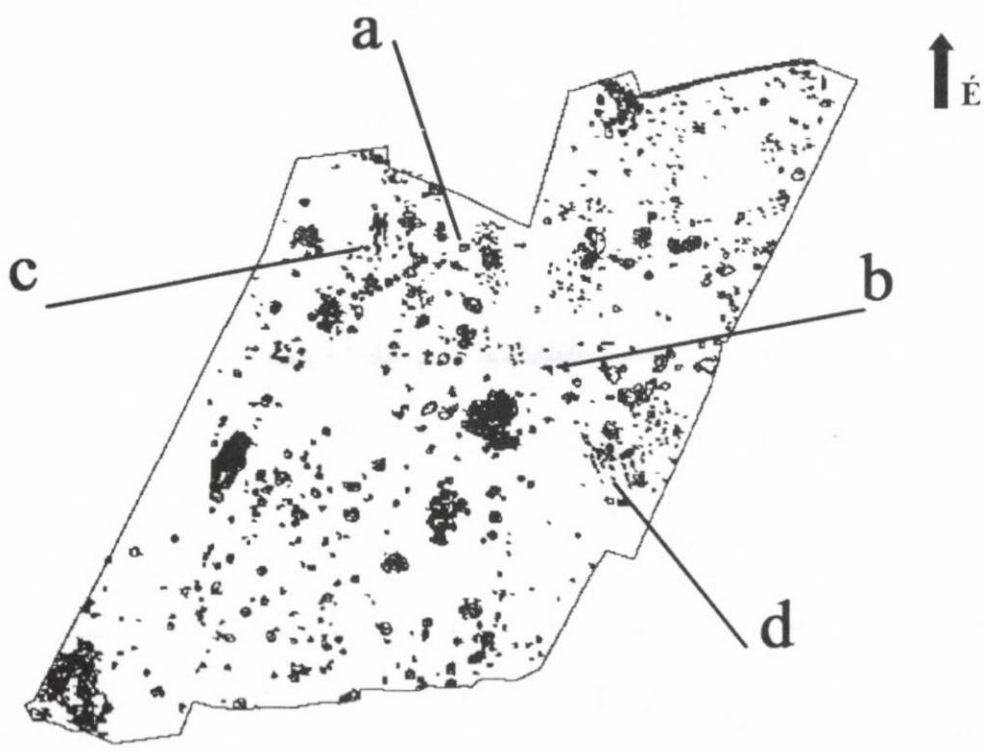


Abb. 11. Tikos - Homokgödrök. Aufnahmen von einigen Häuserstellen

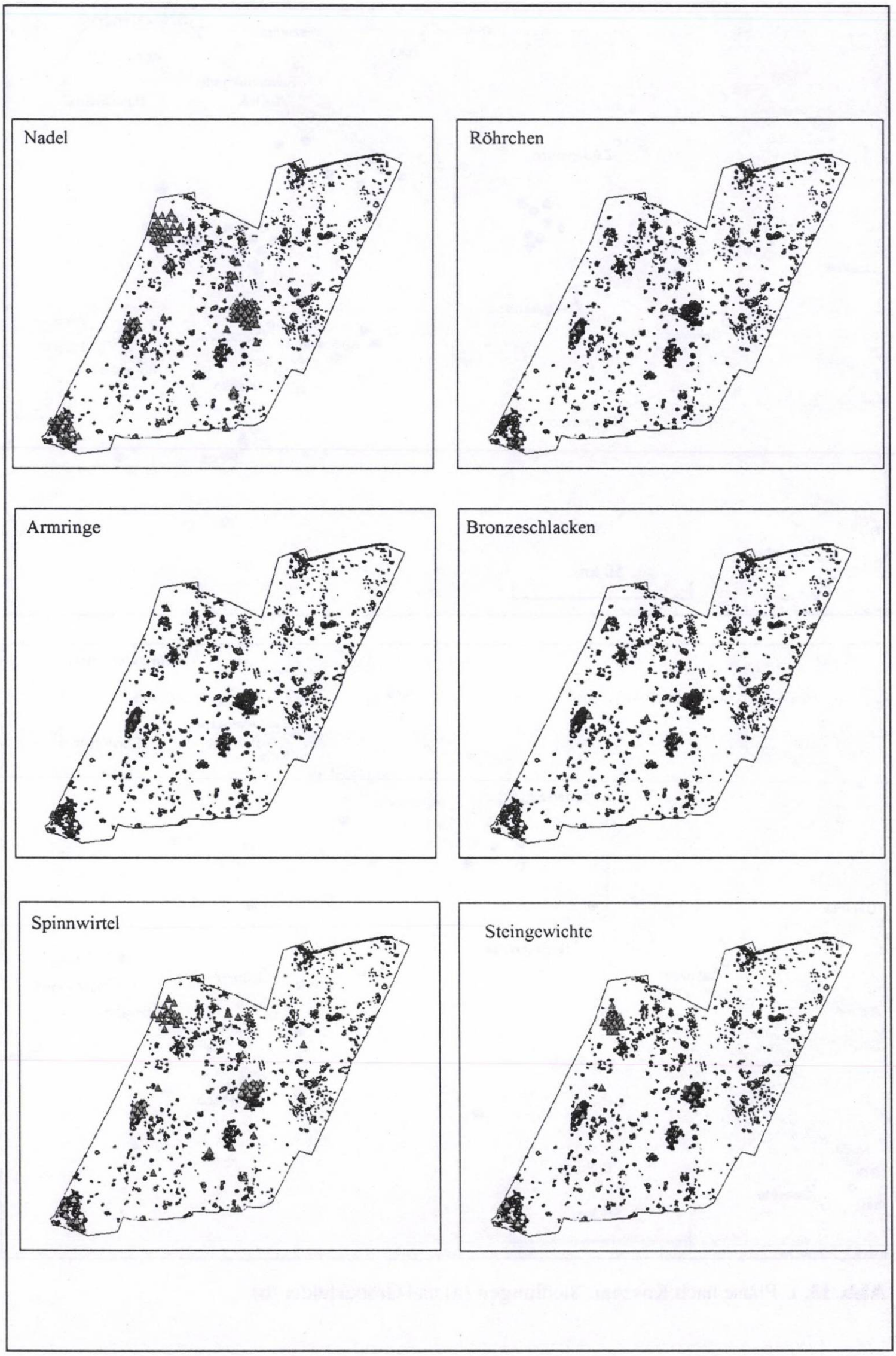
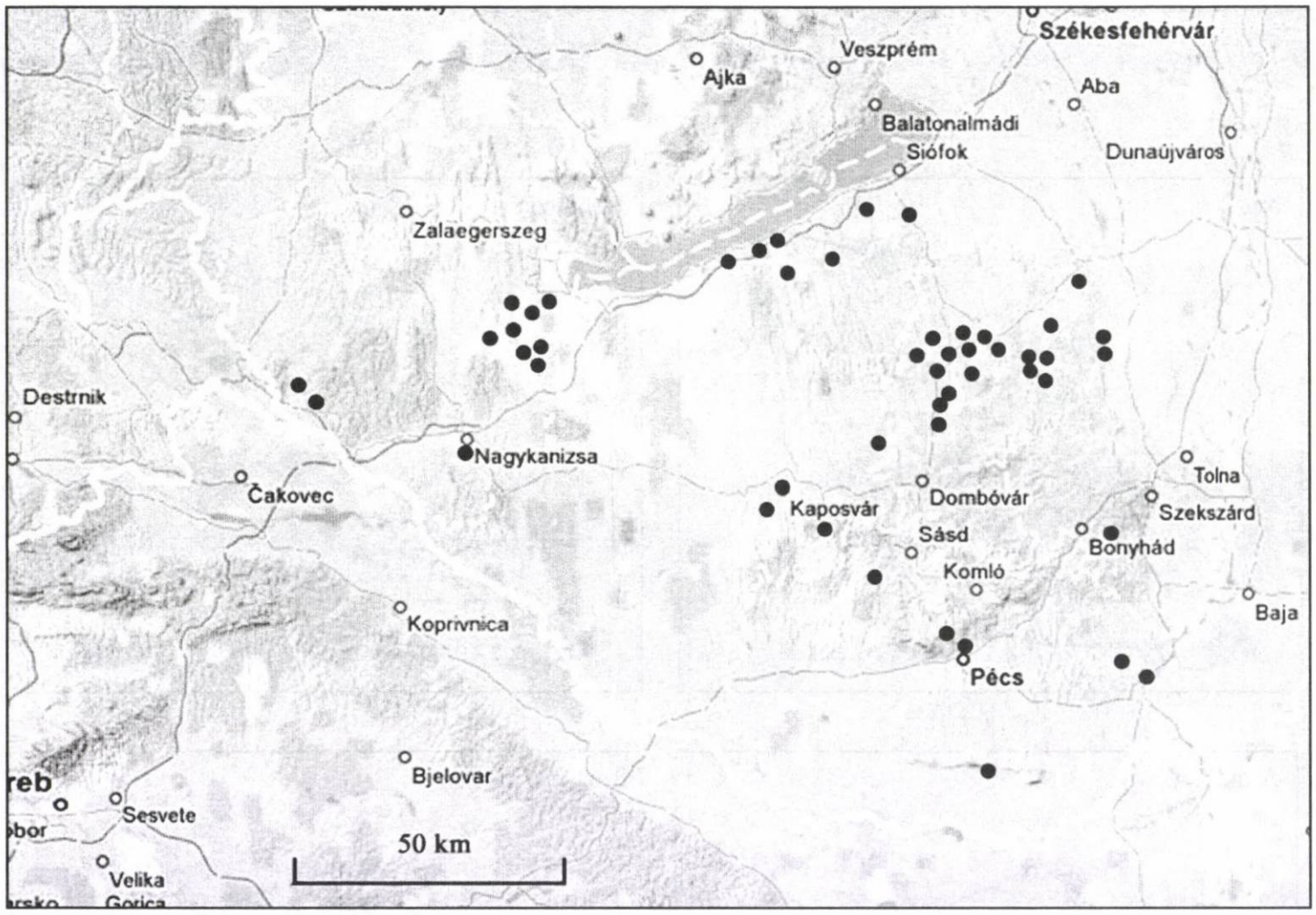


Abb. 12. Tikos – Homokgödrök



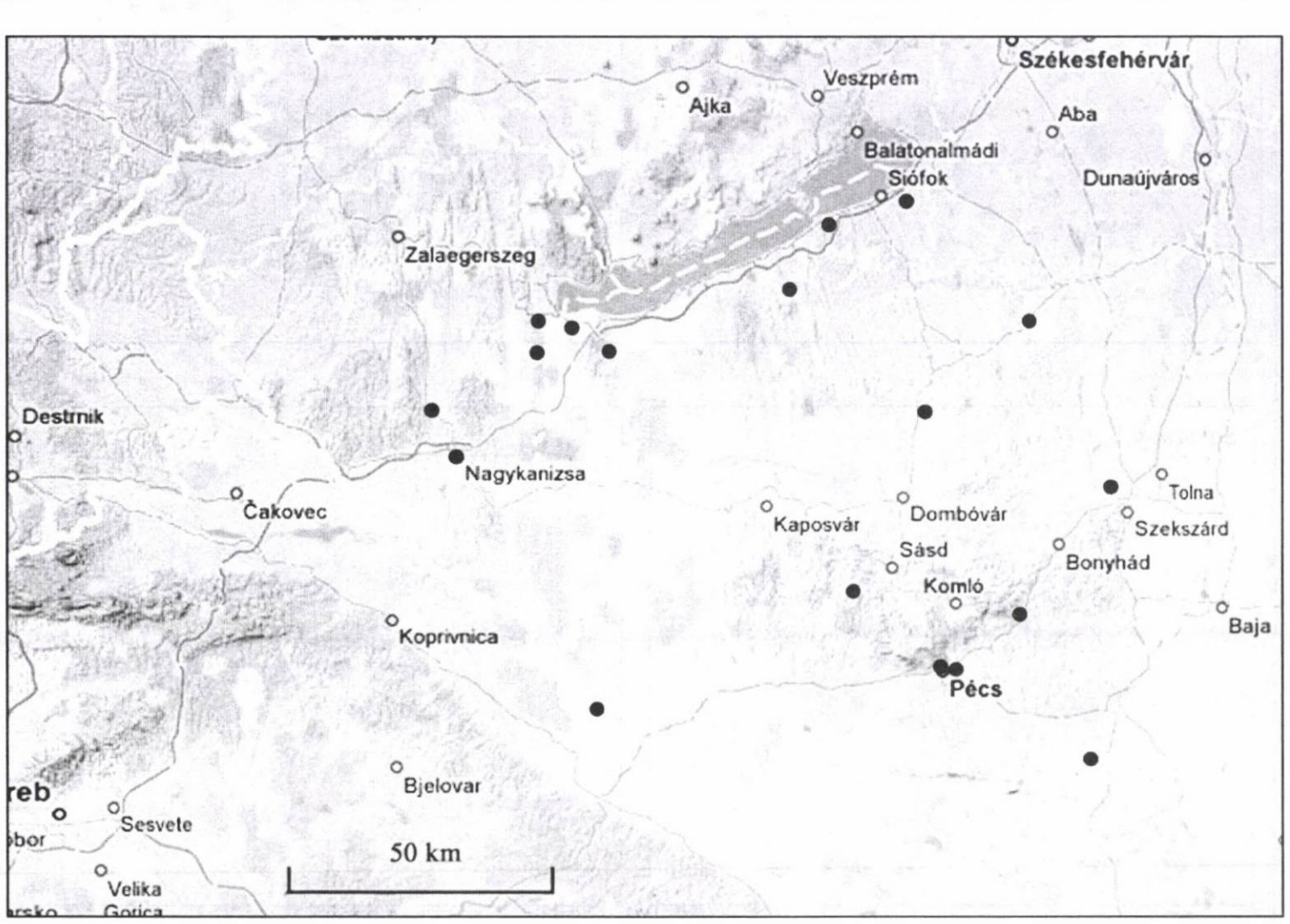
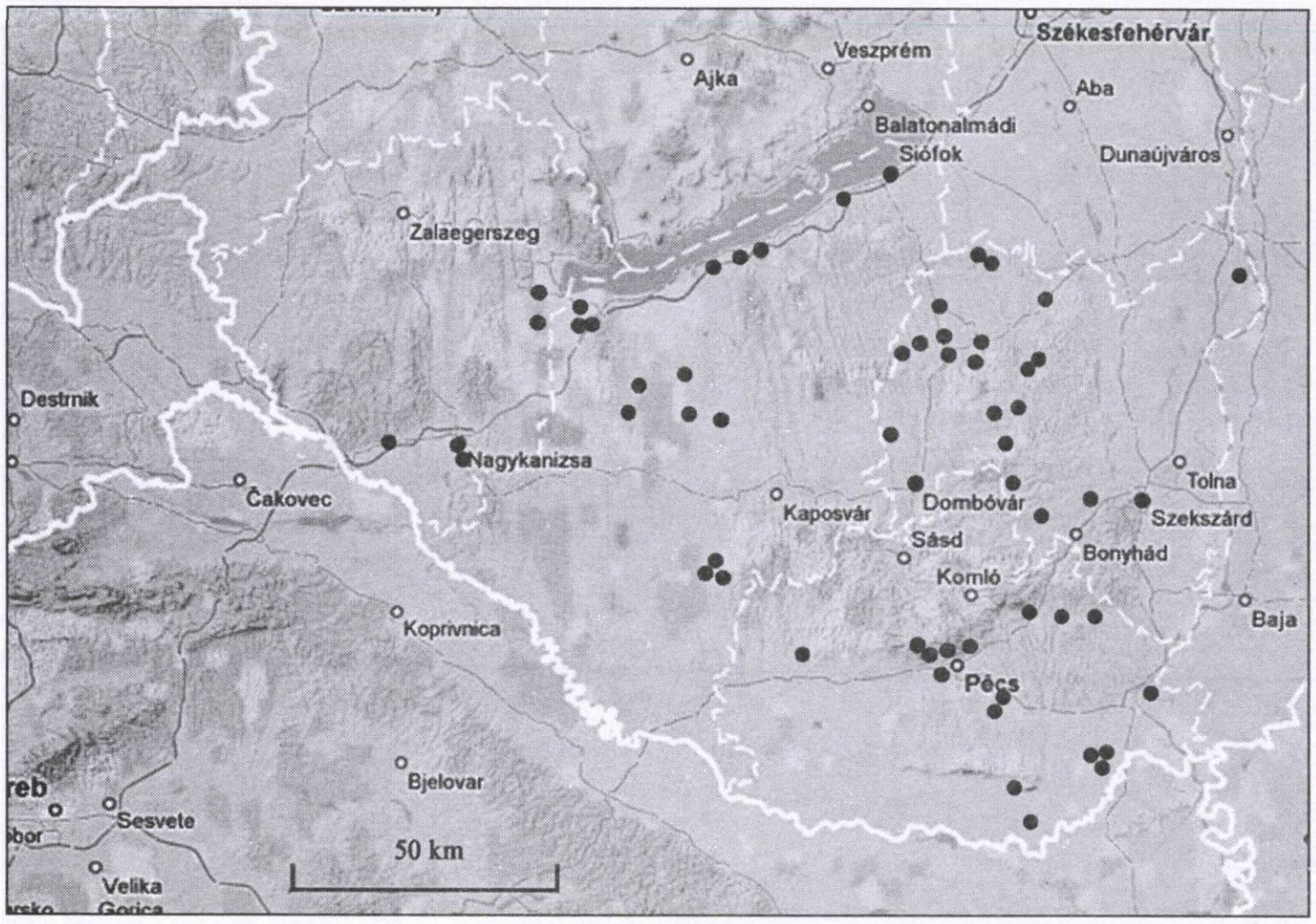


Abb. 13. I. Phase nach Kőszegi. Siedlungen (a) und Gräberfelder (b)



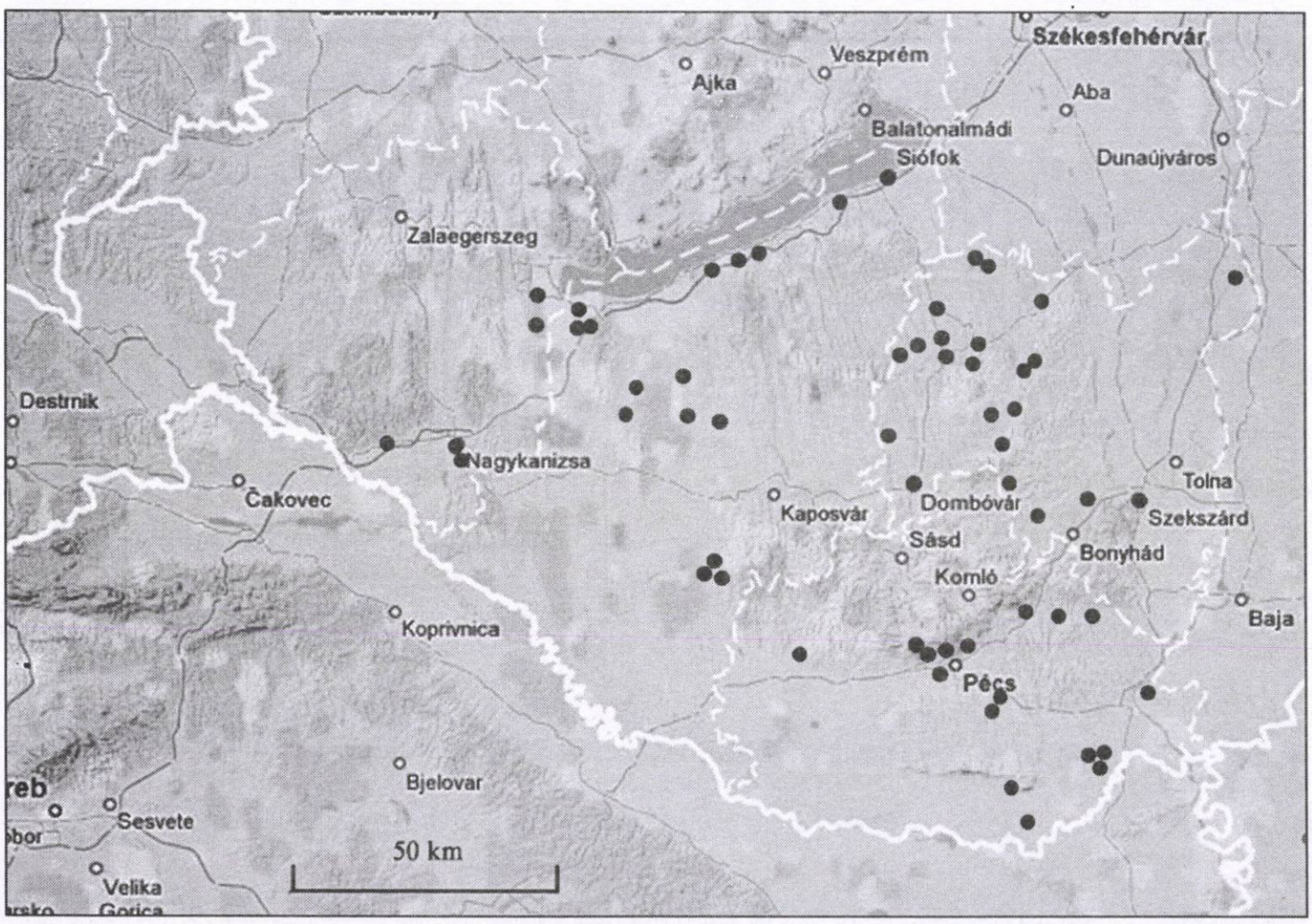
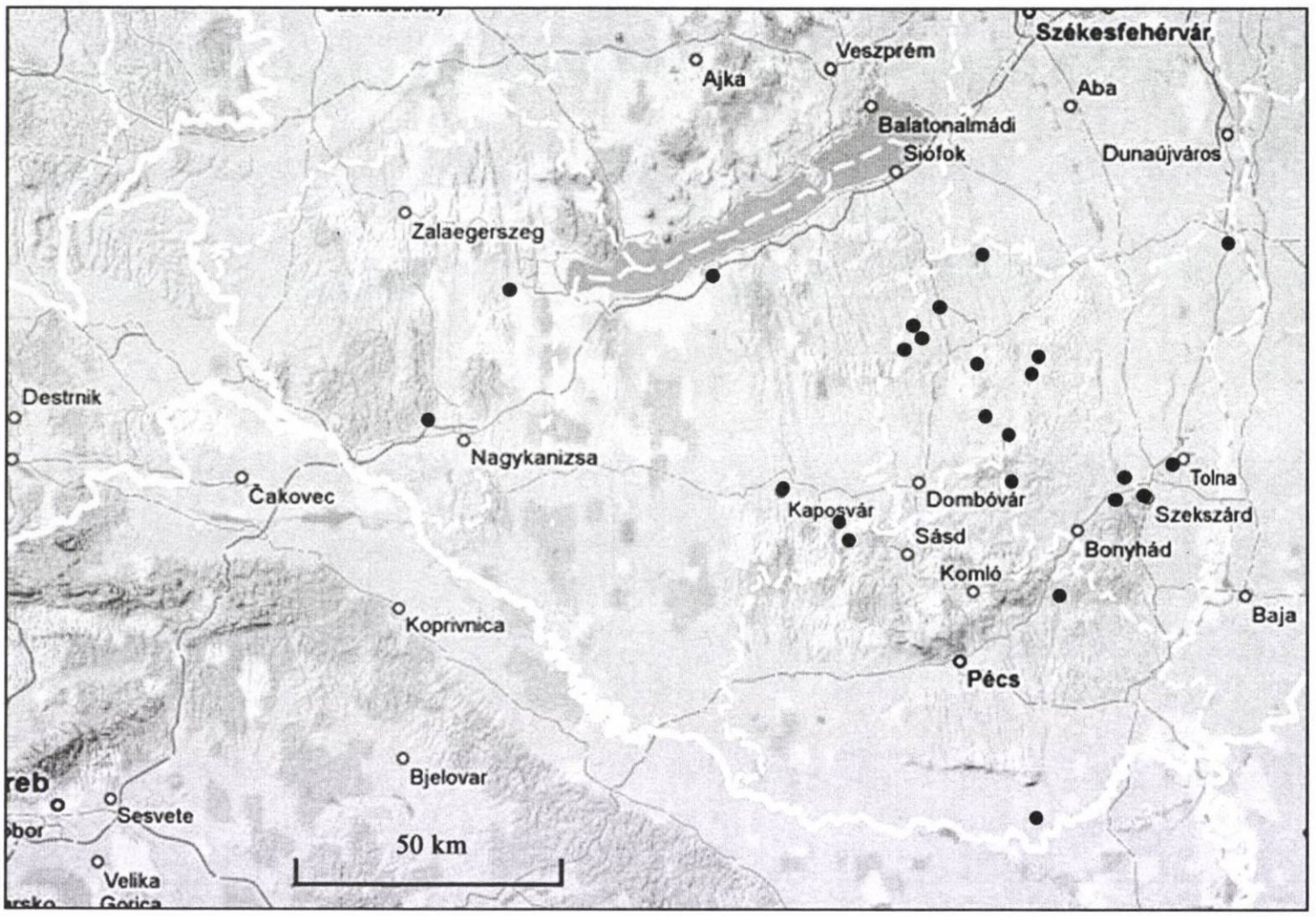


Abb. 14. II. Phase nach Kőszegi. Siedlungen (a) und Gräberfelder (b)



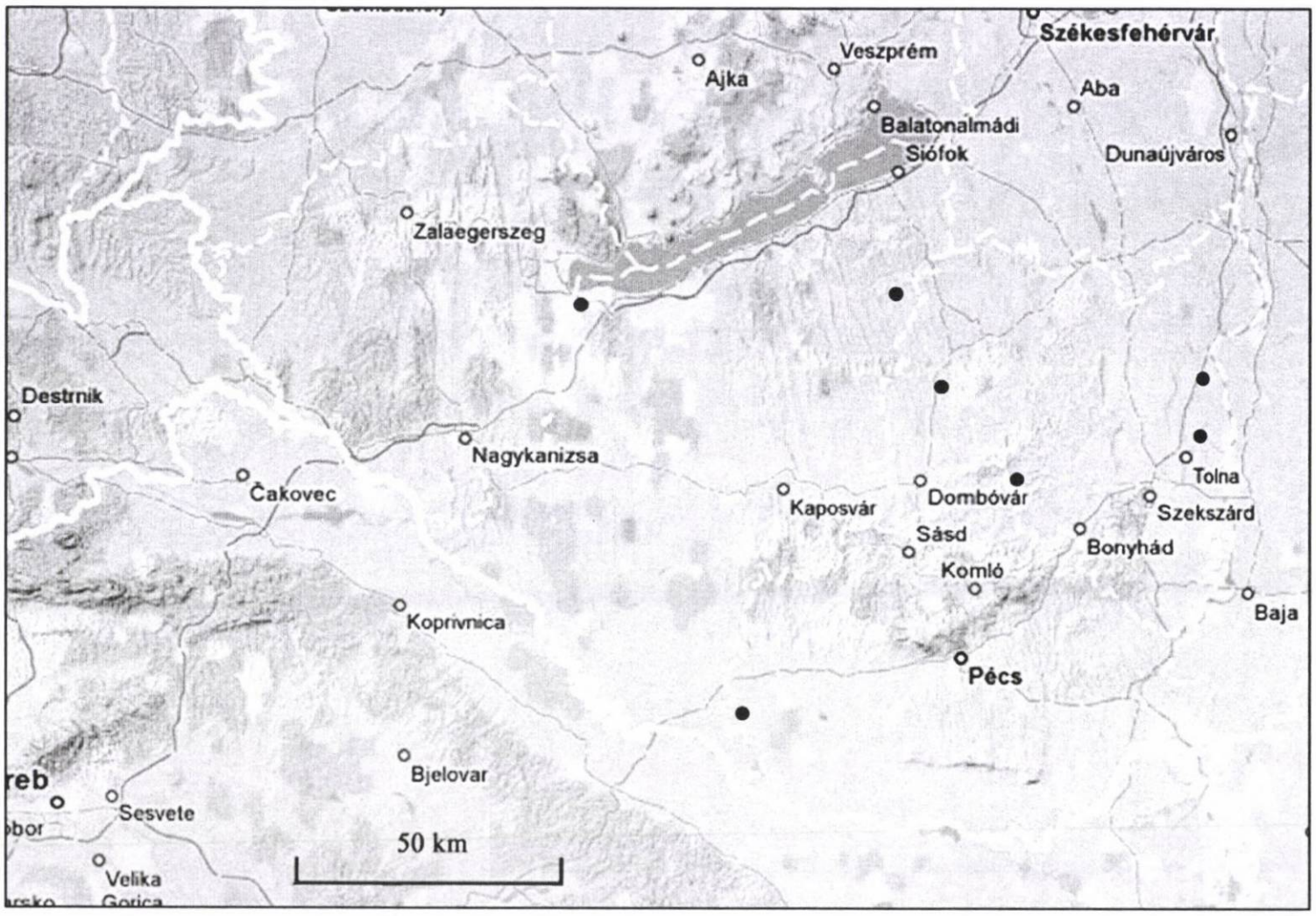
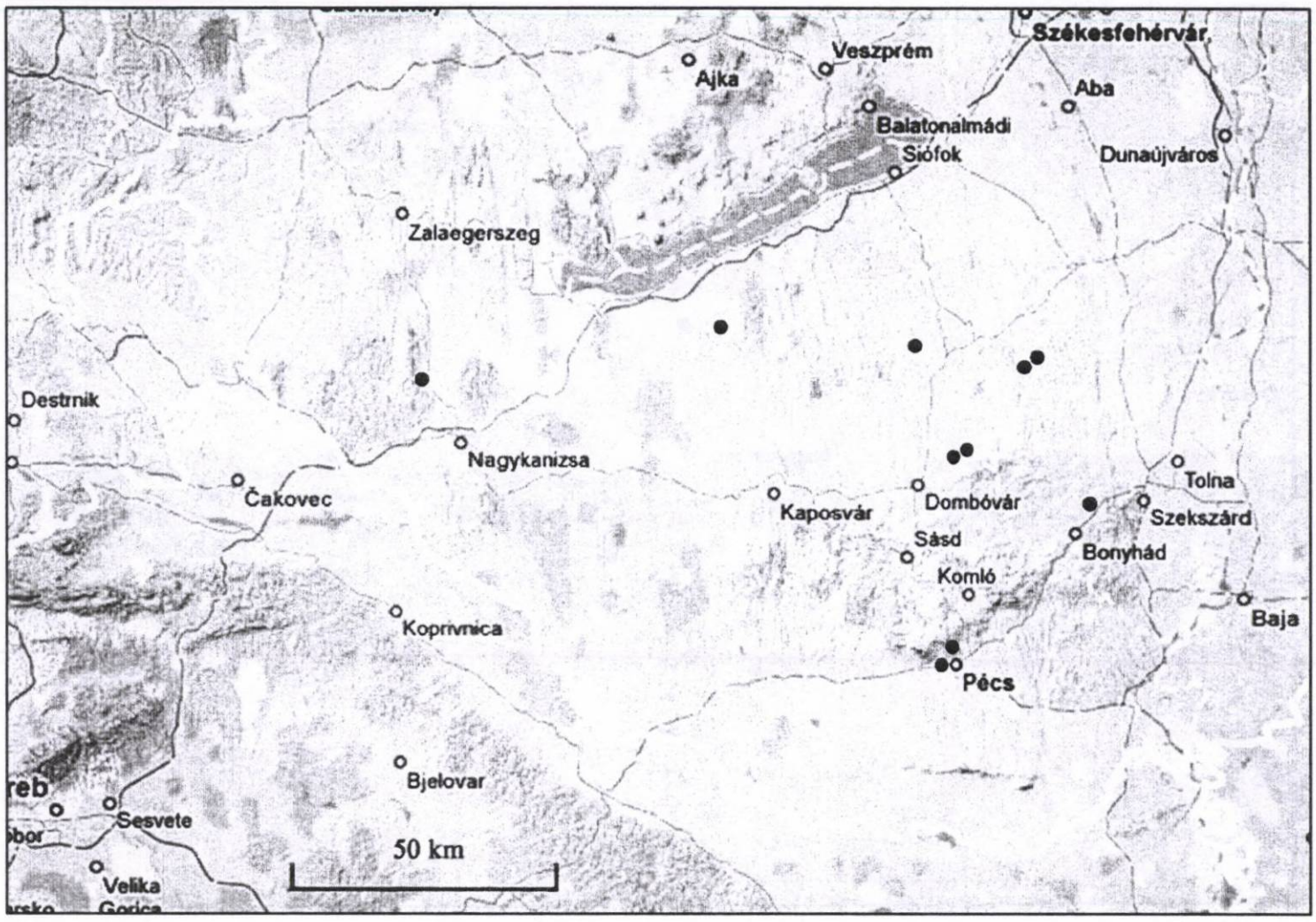


Abb. 15. III. Phase nach Kőszegi. Siedlungen (a) und Gräberfelder (b)



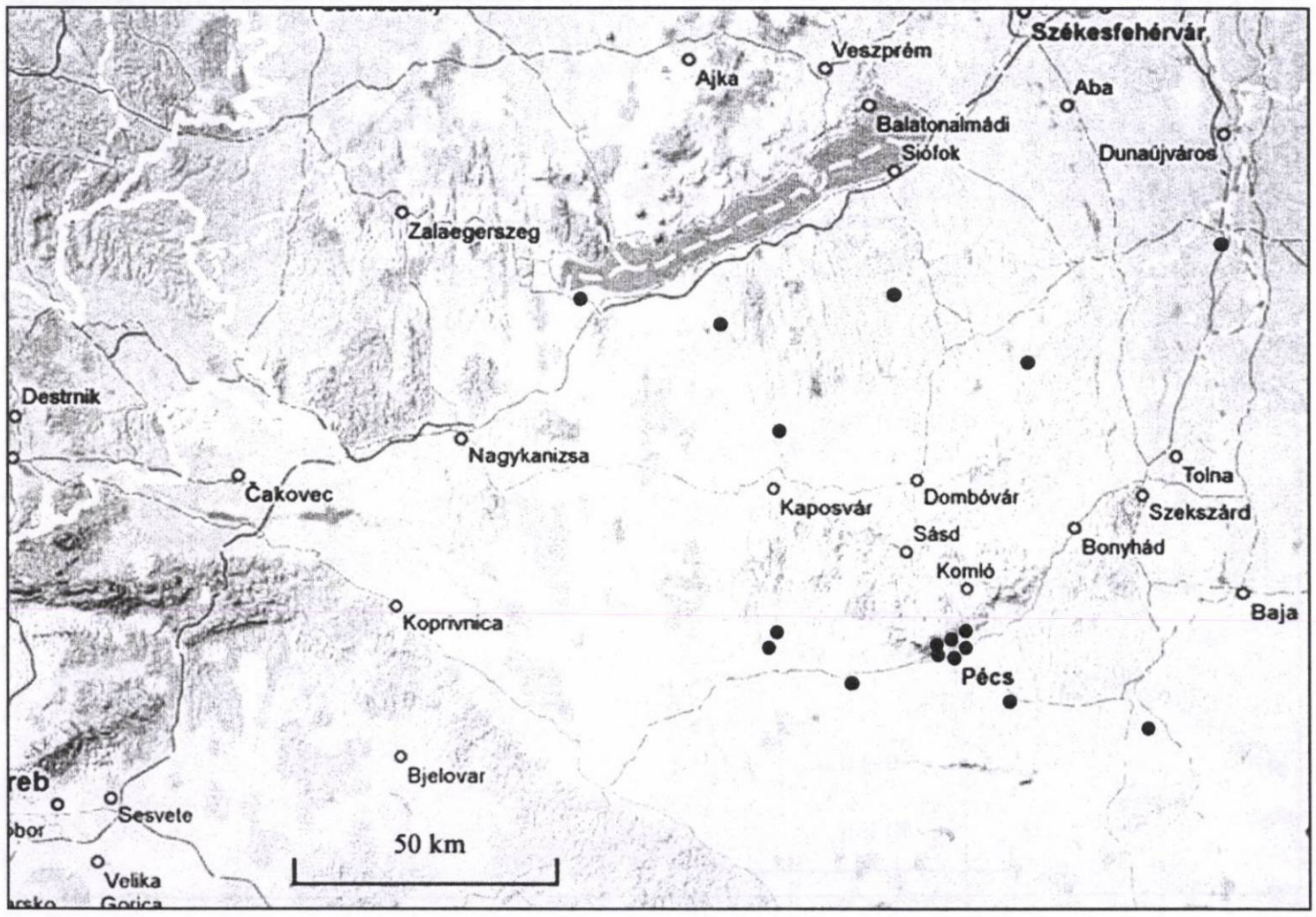
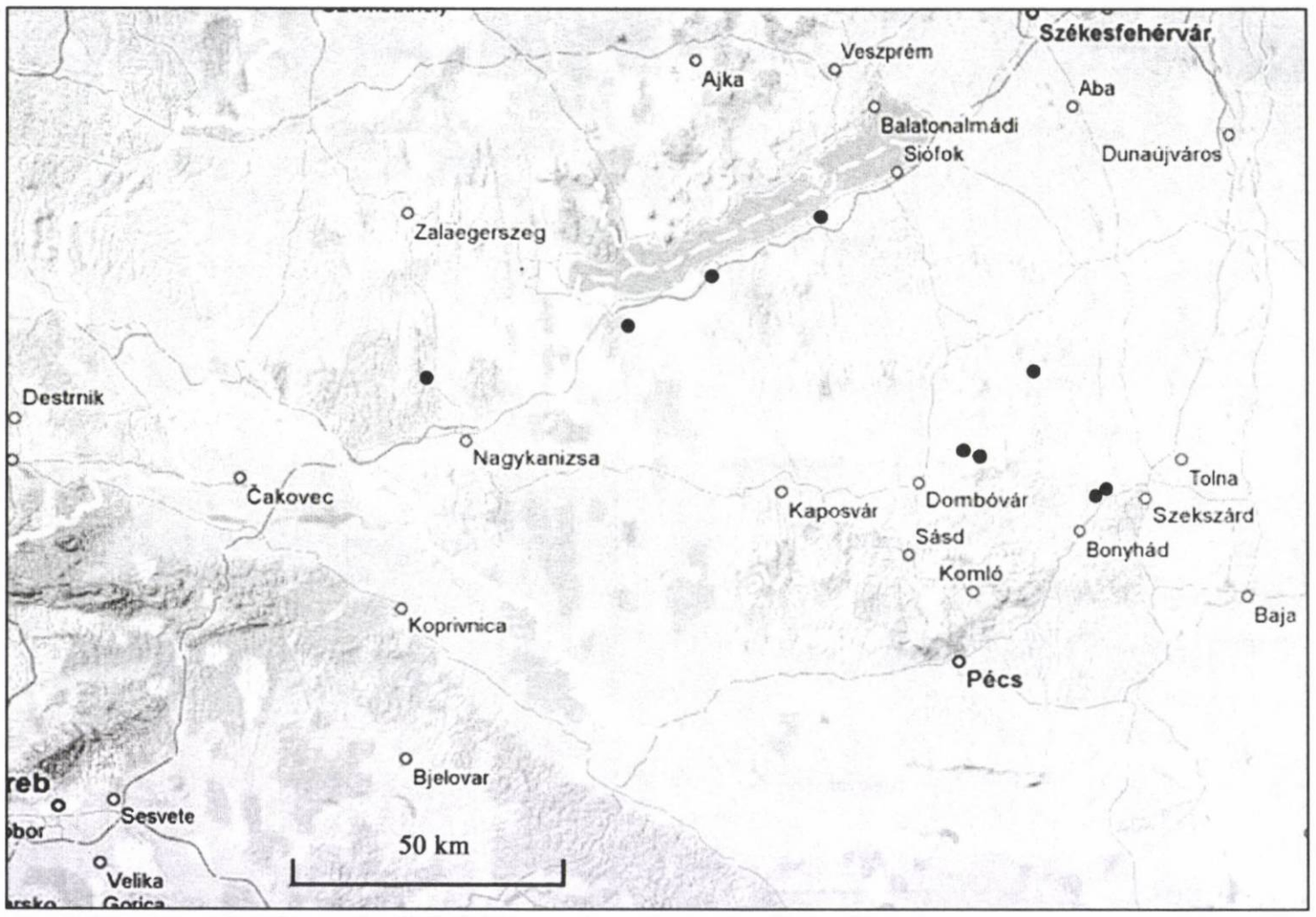


Abb. 16. IV. Phase nach Kőszegi. Siedlungen (a) und Gräberfelder (b)



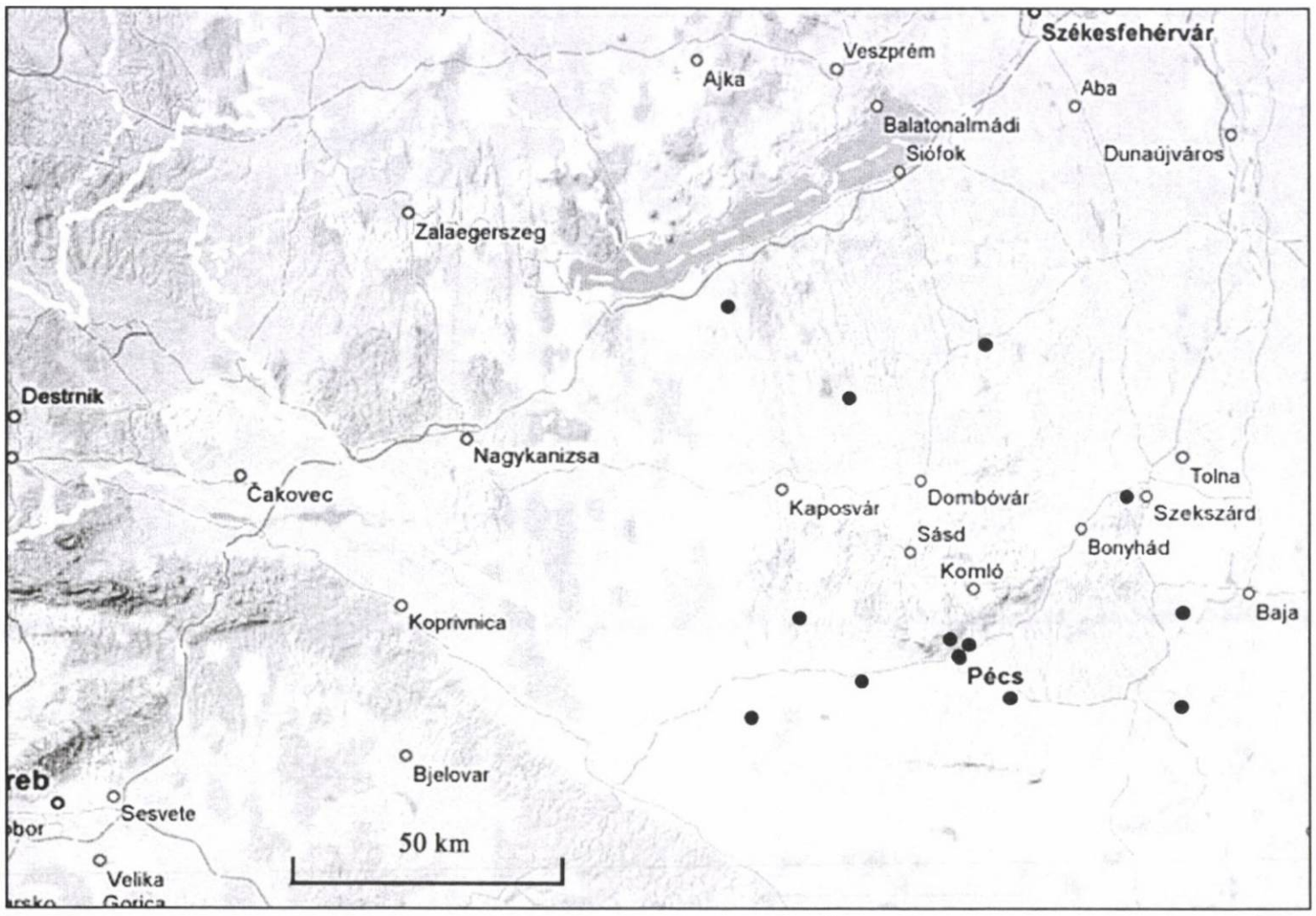


Abb. 17. V. Phase nach Kőszegi. Siedlungen (a) und Gräberfelder (b)

Die reichen Gehänge in Ungarn

Katalin Jankovits

In meinem Vortrag möchte ich mich mit den reichen Gehängen, aus der Spätbronzezeit und der frühen Eisenzeit Ungarns befassen.

Die reichen Gehänge bilden in Ungarn eine interessante Sondergruppe der spätbronzezeitlichen Anhänger. Im ungarischen Gebiet stammen die verschiedenen Typen der reichen Gehänge insbesondere aus Depotfunden; fragmentierte Teile dieser Anhänger befinden sich auch in den Urnengräbern.

Die reichen Gehänge bestehen aus verschiedenen, miteinander verbundenen Gegenständen, wie z. B. aus Form- und Zierelementen. Sie wurden in Gußtechnik hergestellt.

Die einzelnen Zierelemente der reichen Gehänge–z. B. Stachelscheiben mit konzentrischen Rippen, doppelaxtförmige Motive, Lanzettanhänger, Räder und Vogeldarstellungen–verfügen über wichtige symbolische Bedeutung.

Ich möchte die Charakteristika der einzelnen Typen beschreiben.

Die reichen Gehänge vom Typ Kemecse (Abb. 1; Abb. 2) bestehen aus ineinander hängenden Ringen, die an zwei Stellen von einem festen Zwischenstück zusammengefaßt werden. Der obere Abschluß ist bei diesem Gehänge nicht erhalten. Am oberen Teil befindet sich ein gegossener Radanhänger mit Kreisrippen und vier Speichen, dessen oberer Abschluß mit zwei, am unteren Abschluß jedoch mit drei mitgegossenen Schlingen, in die runden Kettenglieder eingehängt ist. In der Mitte befindet sich die rechteckige Platte mit vertikalen Rippen, an beiden Längsseiten sind halbkreisförmige Schlingen zu finden. Die Ketten sind in Kettenguß hergestellt, den Abschluß des Gehänges bilden die Handamulette oben mit Rippen und Ringen. Dieser Anhängertyp kam im Depotfund von Kemecse[1] (Abb. 1) in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg zum Vorschein, und weitere zu diesem Typ gehörende Anhänger sind jedoch ohne Fundort, die Fundumstände sind bis auf „Nordungarn“[2] (Abb. 2, 1) oder in „Ungarn“[3] (Abb. 2, 2) weitestgehend unbekannt.

Der Depotfund von Kemecse wurde aufgrund der Beifunde in die frühe und ältere Urnenfelderzeit, nach Mozsolics Kurd-Horizont, B Vb, Bz D- Ha A datiert.[4]

Das reiche Gehänge von Cserépfalu[5] /Kom. Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén/ (Abb. 3) bilden einen am oberen Teil gegossen, am Rand mit gekerbten Kreisrippen und vier Speichen versehenen Radanhänger. Auf der äußeren Seite des Radanhängers, befinden sich sieben Aufhängeösen, unter denen sich in drei Ösen- durchbohrte, trichterförmige Zwischenglieder befinden, am oberen Teil mit einer, am unteren Teil mit jeweils zwei Ösen. Den Abschluß bilden zwei trichterförmige Anhänger mit doppelter Aufhängeöse, jedoch fehlen des Weiteren mehrere Zwischenglieder und Anhänger. Dieses Gehänge ist bis jetzt einzigartig, da uns bis jetzt nur dieses einzelne Exemplar bekannt ist.

Ein anderes reiches Gehänge bildet jenes vom Typ Tibolddaróc. In diesem Depotfund /Kom. Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén/ kamen zwei Exemplare[6] (Abb. 5) vom diesem Typ ans Tageslicht. Die Charakteristika dieses Anhängers sind folgende: Der durchbrochene Teil des Anhängers ist rechteckig, die Zierelemente bestehen aus konzentrisch gerippten Stachelscheiben, Stegen und Doppelaxtmotiven. An beiden Langseiten befinden sich runde Ösen, die in die Kettenglieder eingehängt sind, sie bestehen aus Doppel- und einfachen Ringen, am Abschluß befinden sich mit spitzovaler Basis eingehängte Knebelanhänger.

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[1] Jósa 1893, 166 Abb. a, 19; Hampel 1896, 156 Abb. 27. Taf. 196, 1; Jósa 1900, 378 Taf. 6, 3: irrtümlich als Fundort Nagyhalász angegeben; Jósa–Kemenczei 1963-64, Taf. 22, 20; Kemenczei 1984, 125 Taf. 61, 20; Mozsolics 1985, 132 Taf. 190, 1.

[2] Smith 1867, 1; Gatty 1873, 68 Anm. 18. 19; Nicholson 1980, 68 Taf. 28, 134.

[3] Hampel 1886, Taf. 62, 1. 4. 5.

[4] Kemenczei 1984, 125; Mozsolics 1985, 132.

[5] Hampel 1892, 21; Hampel 1896, 155-157 Abb. 28; Kemenczei 1984, 115 Taf. 44 d, 1.

[6] Nees 1932-33, 164 Abb. 90. 91; Kemenczei 1984, 121 Taf. 55, 1. 2; Mozsolics 1985, 202-203 Taf. 147, 1. 2.

Aufgrund der Beifunde wurde der Depotfund von Tibolddaróc in die frühe und ältere Urnenfelderzeit, nach Mozsolics in den Kurd-Horizont, B Vb, Bz D–Ha A datiert.[7]

Die reichen Gehänge vom Typ Tibolddaróc sind für das Gebiet der Piliny-Kultur in Ost- und Nordostungarn charakteristisch. Im Urnengräberfeld der Piliny Kultur in Nagybátony /Gr. 798, 848/[8] kamen die Fragmente dieses Anhängers zum Vorschein. Die Guform des Anhängers vom Typ Tibolddaróc kam als Streufund von Szécsény-Benczúrfalva (Dolány) hervor.[9] Von diesem Fundort kennen wir auch zahlreiche fragmentarische Gehänge.[10] Sie unterstützen die Theorie der lokalen Herstellung.

Die Fragmente des reichen Gehänges vom Typ Tibolddaróc befinden sich auch in den Depotfunden der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderzeit Süd-Transdanubiens (Kurd,[11] Lengyeltóti II,[12] Lengyeltóti III,[13] Nadap[14]) und in Kroatien (Brodski Varoš,[15] Bingula Divos[16]). Diese reichen Gehänge gelangten durch die Handelsbeziehungen der Piliny-Kultur als Importstücke ins Gebiet der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderkultur von Süd-Transdanubien. Vermutlich verbreitete sich von hier aus die Art der Tragweise der Gehänge weiter in Richtung der Kroaten.

Das reiche Gehänge mit vierspeichigen Rändern ist einzigartig, es stammt aus Ungarn (Abb. 4, 2), jedoch ohne genauen, uns bekannten Fundort.[17] Bei diesem Gehänge existieren zwei gegossene Scheibenanhänger unter der Stege und drei durchgebrochene Radanhänger, welche durch Stege verbunden wurden. Diese Elemente bilden runde Ösen, welche in die Kettenglieder eingehängt sind.

Das reiche Gehänge mit Vogelprotome und vierspeichigen Rändern (Abb. 4, 1), ist ebenfalls ein einzigartiges Exemplar.[18] Diese Gehänge, stammen aus der Ráth Sammlung und wurden erst vor kurzem in der Slowakei, in der Sammlung des Schloßes Betliar identifiziert.[19] Am oberen Teil, links und rechts von der Aufhängeöse sitzen Kettenglieder mit zwei-zwei Knebelanhängern mit spitzovaler Basis. Unter ihnen sind zwei plastische Wasservögel mit langem Schnabel und angedeuten Augen zu erkennen. In der Mitte befinden sich eine runde Aufhängeöse und fünf durchbrochene vierspeichige Radanhänger, sie wurden durch Stege verbunden. In den runden Ösen wurden Kettenglieder mit zwei-zwei Knebelanhängern eingehängt. Das Gehänge wurde aus ziemlich grobem Material gefertigt. Die langschnabeligen Wasservögel, sowie die vierspeichigen Räder sind wichtige, religiöse Motive der Urnenfelderzeit.[20] Diese Motive befinden sich ebenfalls auf der berühmten Toreutikarbeit, auf der geschnürten Beinschiene von Rinyaszentkirály,[21] im Depotfund der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderzeit, dem Kurd-Horizont.

Im Schatzfund von Zalaszentmihály-Pötréte[22] (Abb. 6) /Kom. Zala, im südlichen Teil von Transdanubien/ - der in die H A 1 datiert wurde–befindet sich ein kostbares

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[7] Kemenczei 1984, 121; Mozsolics 1985, 202-203.
[8] Patay 1954, 43 Abb. 12, 12; Kemenczei 1984, 104 -105 Taf. 6, 10; Schumacher-Matthäus 1985, Taf. 52, 4.
[9] MNM Budapest (Inv. Nr. 58.19.1) unpubliziert.
[10] Kemenczei 1984, 121 Taf. 54, 9; Mozsolics 1985, 189-190: Szécsény-Benczúrfalva Depotfund II.; Mus. Szécsény (70.14.1.2; 50.372; 51.680.681.683; 70.14.1;70.11.3) unpubliziert.
[11] Hampel 1896, Taf. 213, 12. 16. 17; Mozsolics 1985, 141 Taf. 24, 26. 28-30.
[12] Kuzsinszky 1920, 24 Abb. 31, 11; Kilian-Dirlmeier 1975, Taf. 63, 23. 26. 27. 32; Mozsolics 1985, 142 Taf. 107, 17. 18. 38; Wanzek 1992, 249. 254 Taf. 1, 17. 18. 19. 20. 24; Taf. 10, 1. 3. 4. 25. 26.
[13] Török 1940, 62 Taf. 1, 11; Mozsolics 1975, 5-6 Taf. 2, 11; Mozsolics 1985, 143 Taf. 108, 11.
[14] Makkay 2006, 11 Nr. 277. Taf. XXVII, 277.
[15] Vinski-Gasparini 1973, Taf. 53. 6.
[16] Vinski-Gasparini 1973, Taf. 85, 16.
[17] Hampel 1886, Taf. 62, 1; Foltiny 1955, 18 Taf. 4, 6; ehem. Museum Gödöllő (nicht identifizierbar).
[18] Hampel 1886, Taf. 63, 4; Kossack 1954, 121 Taf. 10, 9; Foltiny 1955, 18 Taf. 3, 10.
[19] Furmánek 2004, 137 Abb. 234; Jetzt befindet sich dieses reiche Gehänge im Museum von Bratislava (ohne Inv. Nr.) - freundliche mündliche Mitteilung von Etela Studeniková.
[20] Kossack 1954, 4. 26-28. 46. 48-49; v. Merhart 1969, 182-185; Vizdal 1972, 223-231 Fig. 1, 1-3; Schauer 1985, 179-181; Müller-Karpe 2006, 680-683 Fig. 1, 51-53b.
[21] Hampel 1895, 104; Hampel 1896, Taf. CCXV; v. Merhart 1969, 182-184; Mozsolics 1972, 387-390 Abb. 3, 1; Mozsolics 1985, 27. 118. 183, Taf. 138, 16 Taf. 98; Schauer 1982,134.
[22] Müller 1972, 59-73 Abb. 3-13; Mozsolics 1985, 215.

zusammengesetztes Gehänge, zusammen mit den zur Frauentracht gehörenden Gegenständen: 250 Bernsteinperlen, Spiralperlen, rechteckige Ziere, verschiedene Blechscheiben, zwei Brillenspiralen mit einer Nadel, sowie elf trichterförmige Blechanhänger. Diese reichen Gehänge sind ebenfalls einzigartig und haben sich aus der schlangenförmigen Nadel entwickelt. Die schlangenförmige Nadel besteht aus schlangenförmig gewunden an einer Seite mit einer großen, an der anderen Seite mit einer kleinen, von je zwei Drähten zusammengehaltenen und mit schrägen Linien verzierten Spangen. Die beiden Enden münden in flache Spiralen, in welche jeweils vier Windungen mit Kettengliedern eingehängt sind. Am Ende der Ketten sind von ursprünglich vier Lanzettanhängern nur drei erhalten.

Das reiche Gehänge von Zalaszentmihály (Abb. 7, 2) entwickelte sich aus den schlangenförmigen Nadel, die in Transdanubien für die Gräber der Späthügelgräberkultur, Bz D charakteristisch sind.[23]

Die schlangenförmige Nadel in Verbindung mit einer anderen Nadel, Spiralröllchen, Armbänder, trichterförmige Blechanhänger, gehören zu den charakteristischen Frauenschmucktypen der späteren Hügelgräberkultur in der Bz D Periode Ungarns.[24]

Die Grabbeigabe befand sich im Hügel I/ Gr. 4 in Bakonyjákó,[25] im Gr. 1 von Jánosháza[26] in Transdanubien und im Gr. 105 in Jászberény-Cserőhalom[27] in der Ungarischen Tiefebene. In Ungarn sind diese Gräber immer Brandgräber, so daβ sich die Lage der bestatteten Köper nicht feststellen läßt. Die Rekonstruktion der Tragweise dieser Nadel begründet sich auf den Fund des weiblichen Körpergrabes der Velatice-Kultur von Blučina.[28] Auf der linken Schulter des Leichnams befand sich eine weitere Nadel (Abb. 7, 1). Die Nadeln könnten einen längeren, aus dünnem Stoff gefertigten Mantel zusammengehalten haben und fassten somit die Bekleidung asymmetrisch zusammen.

In der frühen Eisenzeit befanden sich ebenfalls verschiedene Typen der reichen Gehänge.

Das mehrgliedrige reiche Gehänge von Kisterenye[29] (Abb. 8, 1-2) in Nordostungarn kam als Einzelfund zum Vorschein. Die einzelnen Elemente des Gehänges, die Form des kleinen Gefäßes in seiner Mitte und die Schlitzbommel, stellen nordwestbalkanische Charakteristika der Früheisenzeit dar.[30] Ein ähnlicher Anhänger stammt aus Depot I von Vintu de Jos[31] / Alvinc, das an das Ende der Ha B, bzw. an den Beginn der H C datiert wurde.

Der mehrgliedrige Anhänger von Békés[32] (Abb. 8, 3) ist ebenfalls ein Einzelfund, er besteht aus einem offenen Ring mit zwei eingehängten Kettengliedern, davon hängen gegossene Stäbchen- und runde, gedoppelte Blechanhänger ab. Eine genaue Parallele zu diesem, mehrteiligen Gehänge mit Kette kann in der Ungarischen Tiefebene nicht gezogen werden. Dieser Anhänger wurde aufgrund der Paralellen, - Vergleiche zu den einzelnen Elementen, wie z. B. den runden Blechanhängern oder den gegossenen stäbchenförmigen Anhängern im makedonichen Fundmaterial,–in die frühe Eisenzeit datiert.[33]

Die verschiedenen Typen der reichen Gehänge kommen in Ungarn vorwiegend aus Depotfunden, und Schatzfunden hervor. Die fragmentierten Teile dieser Anhänger befinden sich entweder in Urnengräbern der Piliny Kultur in Nordostungarn oder in Streufunden, so daβ man keine sicheren Daten in Bezug auf ihre Tragweise gewinnen kann.

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[23] Kőszegi 1988, 27; Kőszegi 1996, 175-176; Jankovits 1992a, 62-63; Jankovits 1992b, 330 Abb. 11, 5; Abb.13; Jankovits 2000, 79-82.
[24] Kőszegi 1988, 27; Jankovits 1992a, 62-63; Jankovits 1992b, 330 Abb. 11, 5; Abb.13; Jankovits 2000, 79-82, Abb. 4.
[25] Jankovits 1992b, 271 Abb.11. 12. 13.
[26] Lázár 1955, 203 Taf. XXIX, 25; Jankovits (1992a) 47 Abb.36, 1-8.
[27] Csalog-Kemenczei (1966) 78 Abb. 9, 4-6, 9-10.
[28] Tihelka 1961, 205 Abb. 8.
[29] Hampel 1886, Taf. 61, 3; Taf. 62, 6; Kemenczei 1988, 96 Abb. 5, 1. 2; Kemenczei 2005, 87. 139. C 9, Taf. 43 J, 1.2.
[30] Kemenczei 1988, 104; Kemenczei 2005, 87.
[31] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 368 Taf. 393, 2; Kossack 1980, 139; Bader 1983, Taf. 59, A 9; Kemenczei 2005, 87.
[32] Kemenczei 1988, 93. 95 Abb. 2, 6; Kemenczei 2005, 139 C3, Taf 42,D.
[33] Bouzek 1973, 94; Kemenczei 1988, 106; Kemenczei 2005, 87.

In der Forschung existieren unterschiedliche Erachten über ihre Funktion. A. Mozsolics[34] nimmt für diese Anhänger eine Zugehörigkeit zum Pferdegeschirr an, nach der Ansicht von M. Ness,[35] waren sie vielmehr Kleidungsschmuck, nach V. Furmánek[36] und G. Schumacher-Matthäus[37] gehörten sie zur Prunktracht oder waren Teile des Pferdegeschirrs.

Bis jetzt sind keine sicheren zeitgleichen Pferdebestattungen mit reichen Gehängen bekannt.

In den Depotfunden von Kemecse,[38] Felsődobsza[39] und Viss[40] befinden sich die reichen Gehänge zusammen mit Armschmuck, in den Depotfunden von Tibolddaróc[41] und Mád-Padihegy[42] jedoch zusammen mit Armschmuck und Knöpfen. Im Schatzfund von Zalaszentmihály-Pötréte[43] kam das Gehänge zusammen mit den zur Frauentracht gehörenden Gegenständen hervor. In diesem Falle gehört das Gehänge eindeutig zur Frauentracht.

Die fragmentarischen Teile der reichen Gehänge–Handanhänger mit Zähnen– fanden sich zum erstemal in den Depotfunden von Felsődobsza II[44] und Ópályi.[45] A. Mozsolics datierte diese Funde in die Ópályi-Horizont, B IVb, Bz D, obwohl die Zusammenhörigkeit des Depotfundes von Felsődobsza unsicher ist.[46]

Die fragmentarischen Teile dieser Anhänger kamen aus dem Gebiet der Piliny-Kultur - aus den Gräbern in Nagybátony,[47] Piliny[48] und weitere zahlreiche Anhänger kamen als Streufunde von Szécsény- Benczúrfalva (Dolány)[49] hervor.

Die Blütezeit der reichen Gehänge war in der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderzeit, im Kurd-Horizont, B Vb, Bz D–Ha A. Während dieser Zeit kamen sie aus den Depotfunden von Kemecse,[50] Cserépfalu,[51] Tibolddaróc,[52] Zalaszentmihály[53] ans Tageslicht. Auch die fragmentierten Teile dieser Anhängertypen befinden sich in dem südlichen Teilen von Transdanubien, in den Depotfunden von Kurd,[54] Nadap,[55] Lengyeltóti II,[56] Legyeltóti III,[57] Regöly.[58]

Die reichen Gehänge vom Tibolddaróc sind für die lokale Bronzeindustrie der Piliny-Kultur charakteristisch. Sie sind durch die Handelsbeziehung aus der Piliny-Kultur als Importstücke ins Gebiet der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderzeit von Süd-Transdanubien gelangt. Vermutlich verbreiteten sie sich von hier aus weiter in Richtung der Kroaten.

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[34] Mozsolics 1973, 75-76; Mozsolics 1985, 54-55.
[35] Nees 1932-33, 164-166 Abb. 90. 91.
[36] Furmánek 1980, 40.
[37] Schumacher-Matthäus 1985, 79-84.
[38] Hampel 1896, 156 Abb. 27 Taf. 196, 1; Jósa 1893, 166-167; Jósa 1900, 378 Taf. 6, 3; Jósa-Kemenczei 1963-64, Taf. 22, 20; Kemenczei 1984, 125 Taf. 61, 20; Mozsolics 1985, 132 Taf. 190, 1.
[39] Hampel 1892, 37-38; Mozsolics 1973, 134-135 Taf. 47.
[40] Jósa–Kemenczei 1963-64, Taf. 62; Kemenczei 1984, 126 Taf. 64d; Mozsolics 1985, 214.
[41] Nees 1932-33, 164-166 Abb. 90. 91.
[42] Hellebrandt 1980, 81 Taf. 2, 2. 3. 5; Kemenczei 1984,119 Nr. 26; Mozsolics 1985, 45.
[43] Müller 1972, 61 Abb. 1-13.
[44] Hampel 1892, 37-38; Mozsolics 1973, 134-135 Taf. 47, 20.
[45] Mozsolics 1963, 65-66 Taf. 5, 4-7; Mozsolics 1973,164-165 Taf. 18, 4-7).
[46] Mozsolics 1973, 134-135.
[47] Patay 1954, 43 Abb. 12, 12; Kemenczei 1984, 104. Taf. 6, 10; Schumacher–Matthäus 1985, Taf. 52, 4.
[48] Patay 1954, 43 Abb. 12, 12; Kemenczei 1984,104 f. Taf. 6, 10; Schumacher-Matthäus 1985, Taf. 52, 4.
[49] UNM Budapest (44.188.1003, unpubliziert).
[50] Hampel 1896, Taf. 196, 1; Jósa 1893,166-167; Jósa 1900, 378 Taf. 6, 3; Jósa-Kemenczei 1963-64, Taf. 22, 20; Kemenczei 1984, 125 Taf. 61, 20; Mozsolics 1985, 132 Taf. 190, 1.
[51] Hampel 1892, 21; Hampel 1896, 155-158 Abb. 28; Kemenczei 1984, 115 Taf. 44d, 1.
[52] Nees 1932-33, 164 Abb. 90. 91; Kemenczei 1984, 121 Taf. 55, 1. 2; Mozsolics 1985, 202-203 Taf. 147, 1. 2.
[53] Müller 1972, 61 Abb. 4, 3; Abb. 5, 3, Abb. 8, Abb. 13; Mozsolics 1985, 215
[54] Hampel 1896, Taf. 213, 12. 16. 17; Mozsolics 1985, 141 Taf. 24, 26. 28-30
[55] Makkay 2006, Taf. XXVII, Nr. 277-280.
[56] Kuzsinszky 1920, 24 Abb. 31, 11; Kilian-Dirlmeier 1975, Taf. 63, 23. 26. 27.32; Mozsolics 1985, 142 Taf. 107, 17. 18. 38; Wanzek 1992, 249. 254 Taf. 1, 17. 18. 19. 20. 24; Taf. 10, 1. 3. 4. 25. 26.
[57] Török 1940, 57 Taf. 1, 11; Mozsolics 1975, 5 Taf. 2, 11; Mozsolics 1985, 143 Taf. 108, 11.
[58] Mészáros 1975-76, 69 Taf. 6, 2. 3; Mozsolics 1985, 181 Taf. 30, 14. 15.

Die verschiedenen Typen der reichen Gehänge sind für die Bronzeindustrie Südosteuropas charakteristisch. Sie verbreiteten sich in der frühen und älteren Urnenfelderzeit auch in den Nachbargebieten, somit auch in der Slowakei,[59] in Rumänien[60] und Kroaten[61] und Bosnien und Herzegowina[62]. In der frühen Eisenzeit sind die reichen Gehänge vom Typ Kisterenye und Békés in Ungarn zu finden.

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[59] Furmánek 1980, 39-40 Nr. 778-790.

[60] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1978, Taf. 34A, 16: Guruslău; 39B, 33: Mişca; 92B, 17: Cubulcut; Schwertheim 1997, 104: Arpašel (Árpád).

[61] Vinski-Gasparini 1973, Taf. 85, 16. 20: Bingula-Divoš; Taf. 53, 6: Brodski Varoš.

[62] König 2004, 225-227 Taf. 63, 3. 4. 5: Velki Mošuni.

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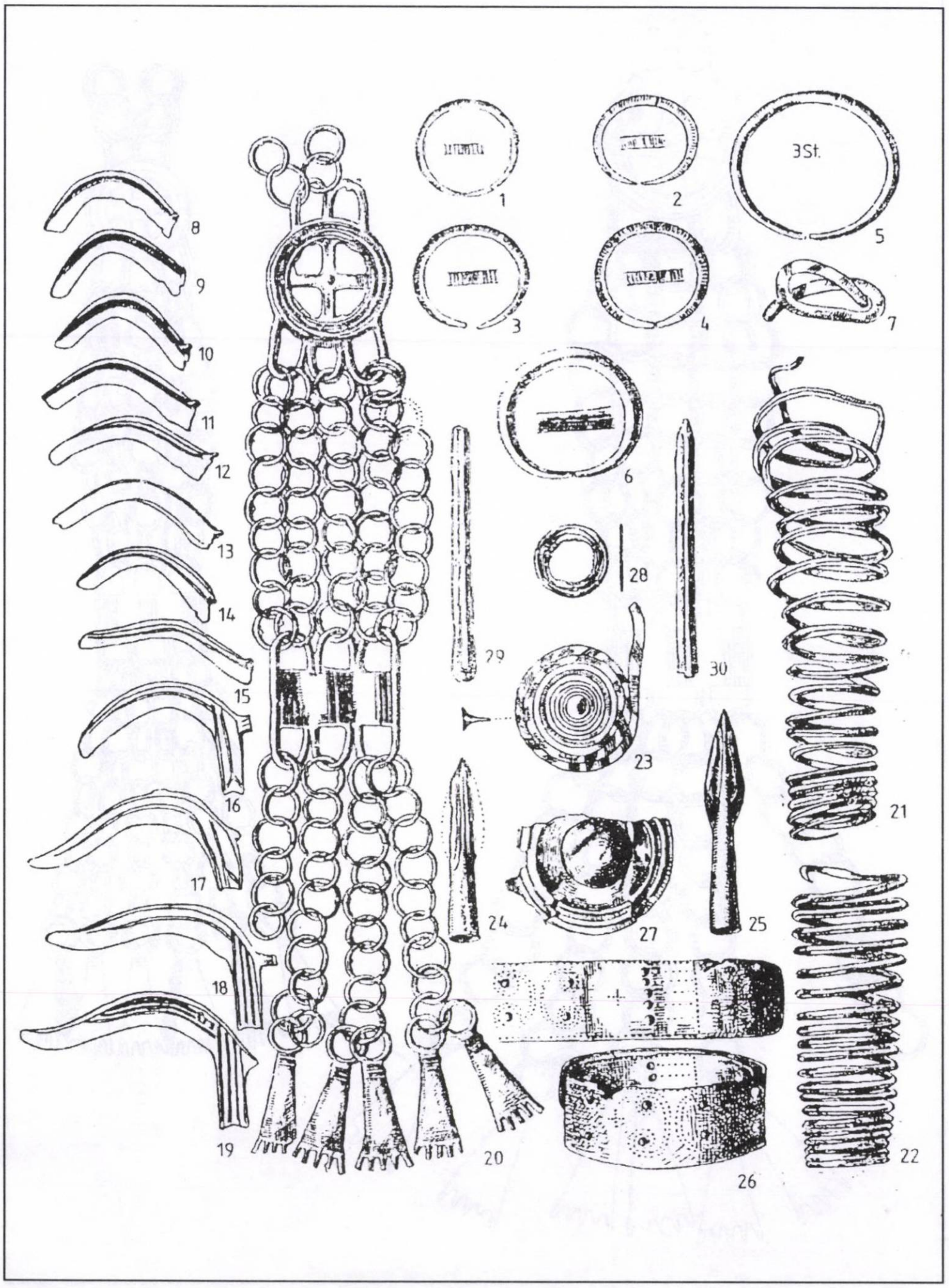

Abb. 1. Kemecse–Hamvaspart, Depotfund (nach Jósa 1893) (verschiedene Maβstabe)

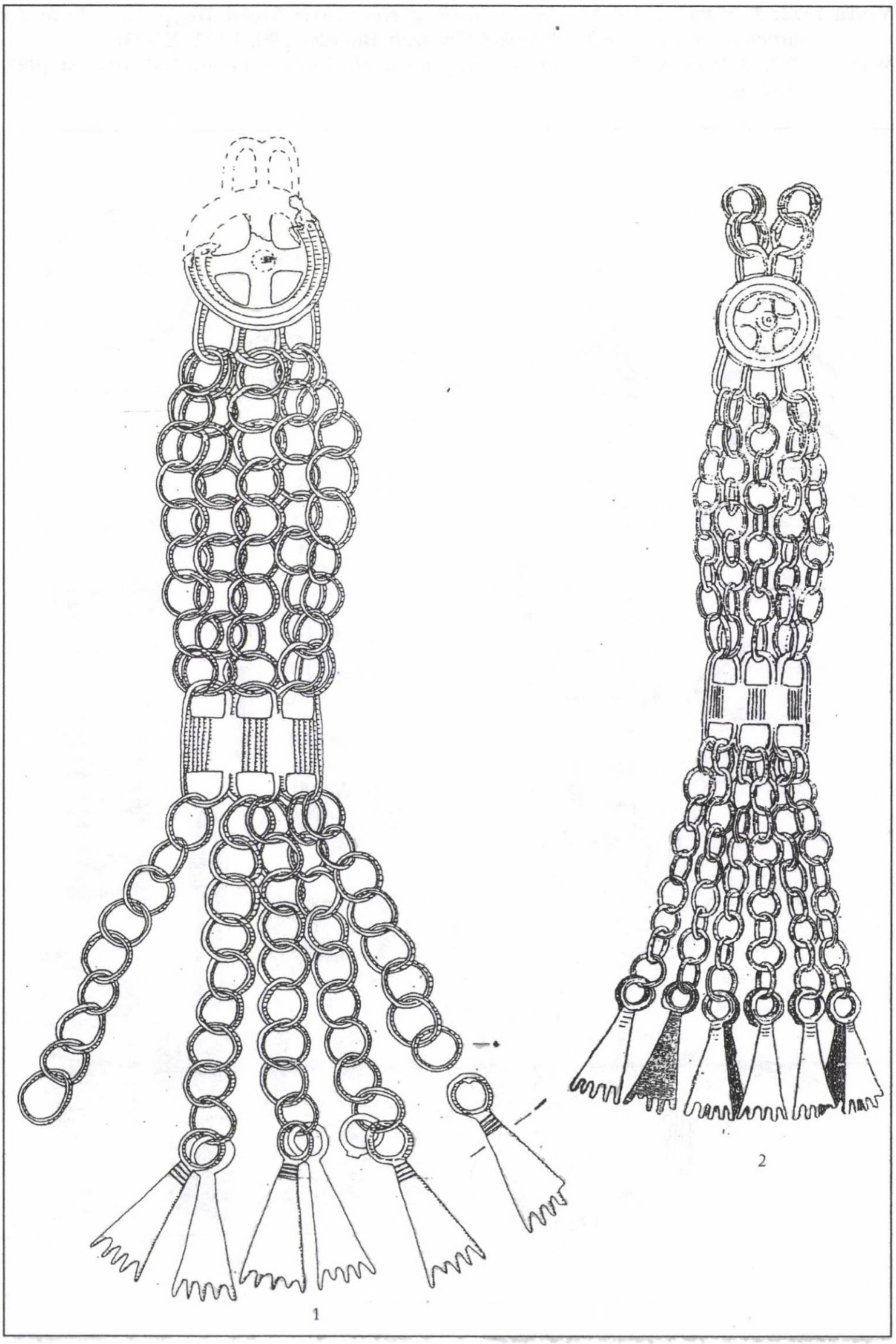

Abb. 2. 1. „Nordungarn“ (nach Nicholson 1980); 2. „Ungarn“ (nach Hampel 1886) (verschiedene Maβstabe)

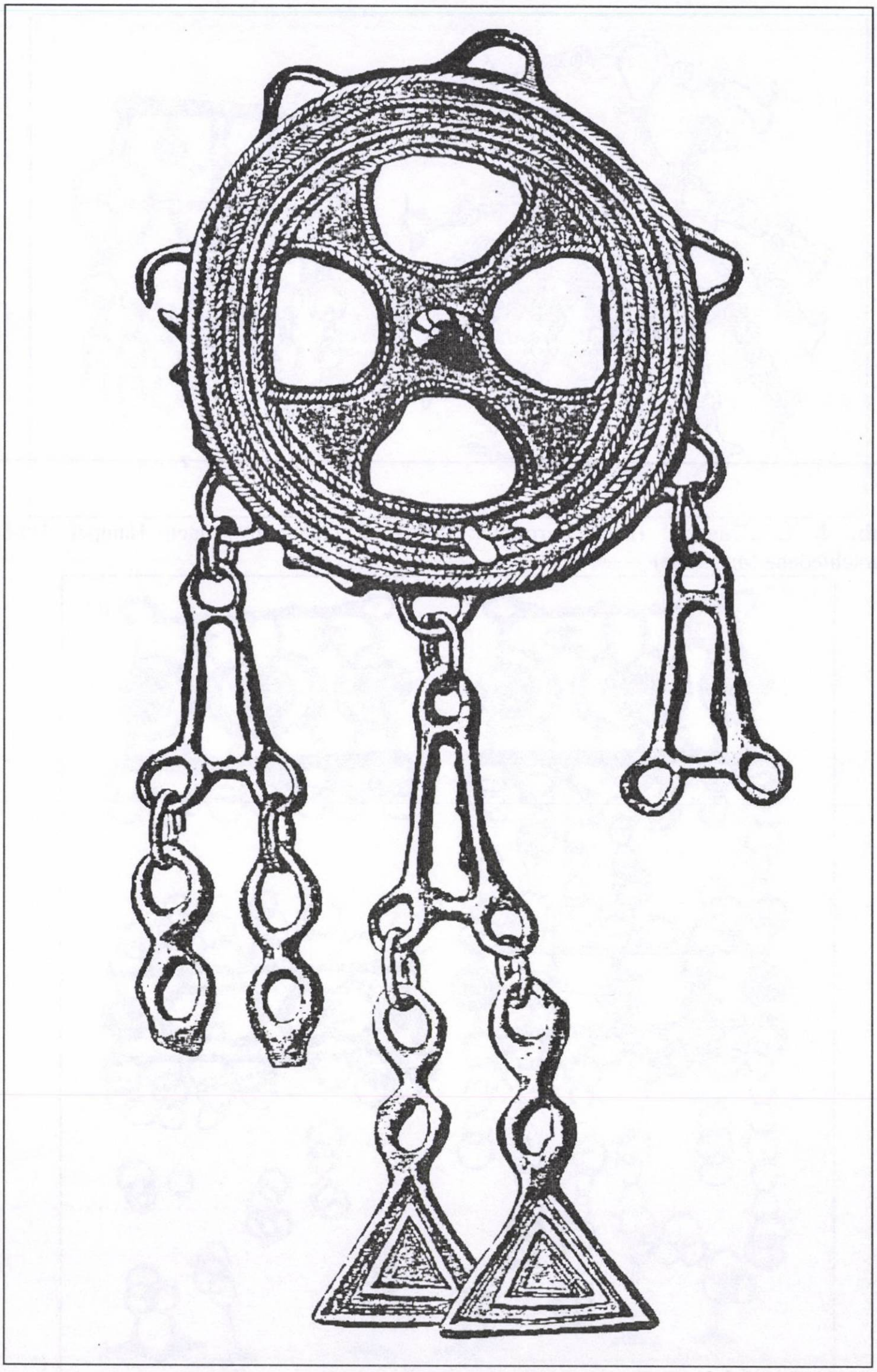

Abb. 3. Cserépfalu (nach Hampel 1896)

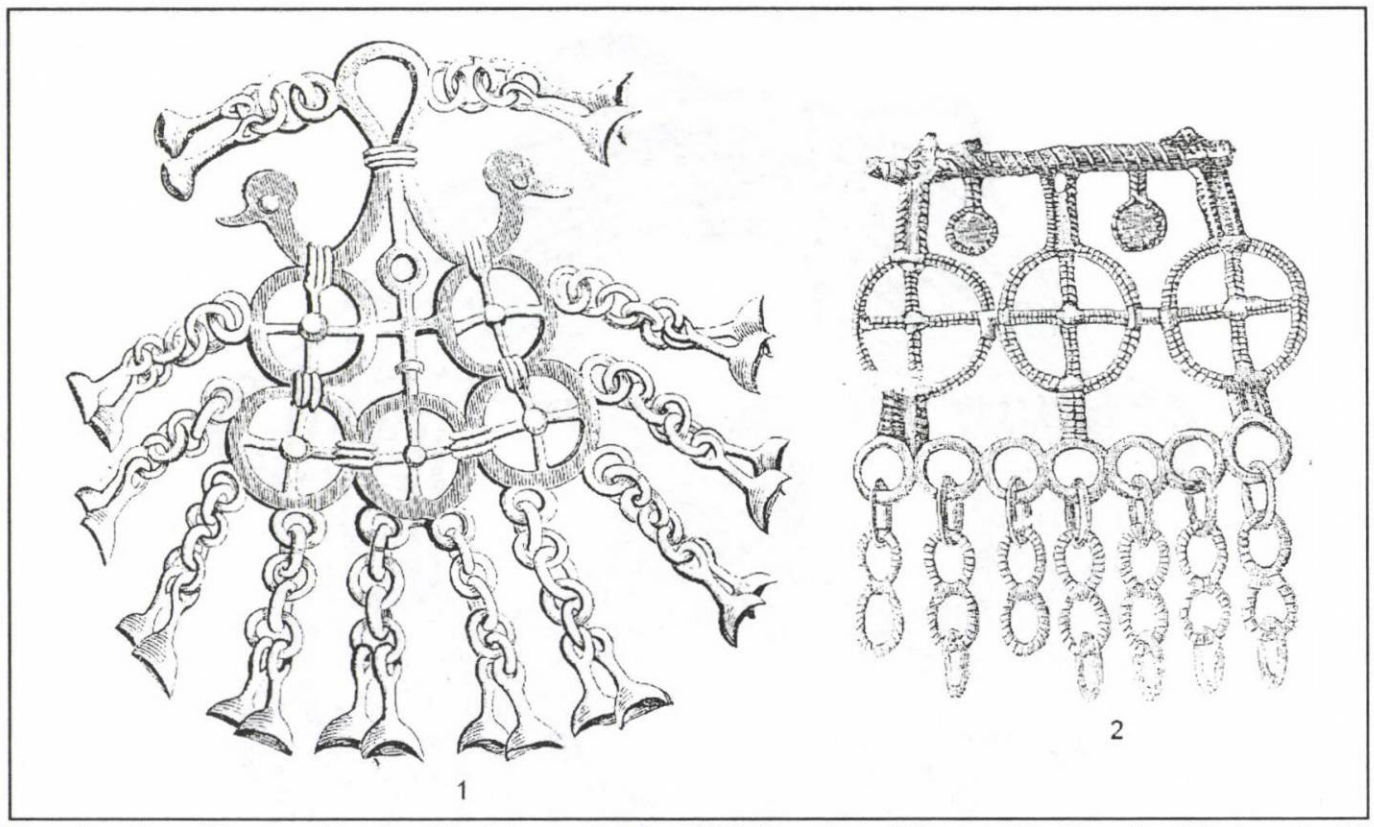

Abb. 4. 1. „Ungarn“ (nach Furmánek 2004); 2. „Ungarn“ (nach Hampel 1886) (verschiedene Maβstabe)

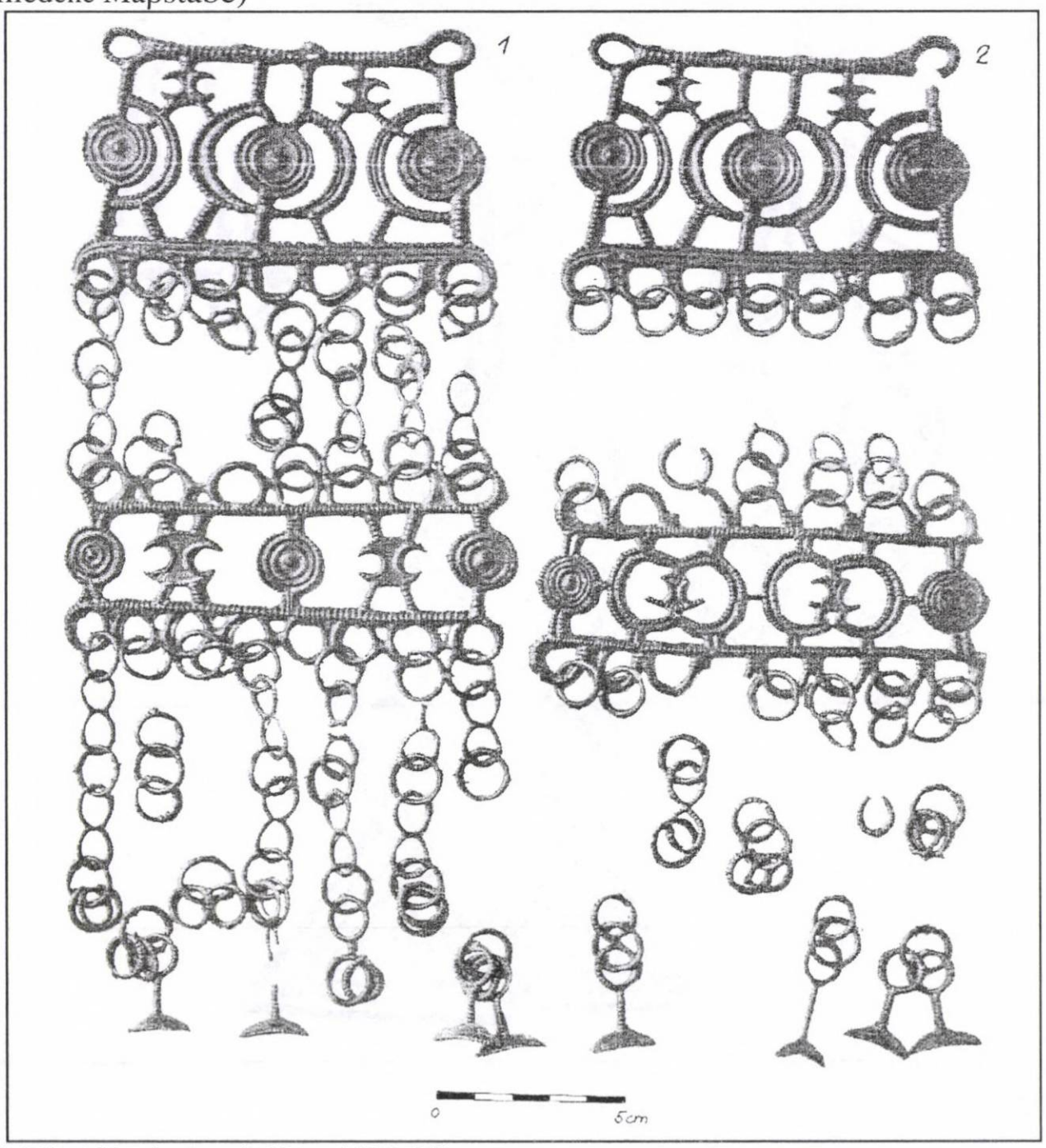

Abb. 5. Tibolddaróc (nach Nees 1932-33)

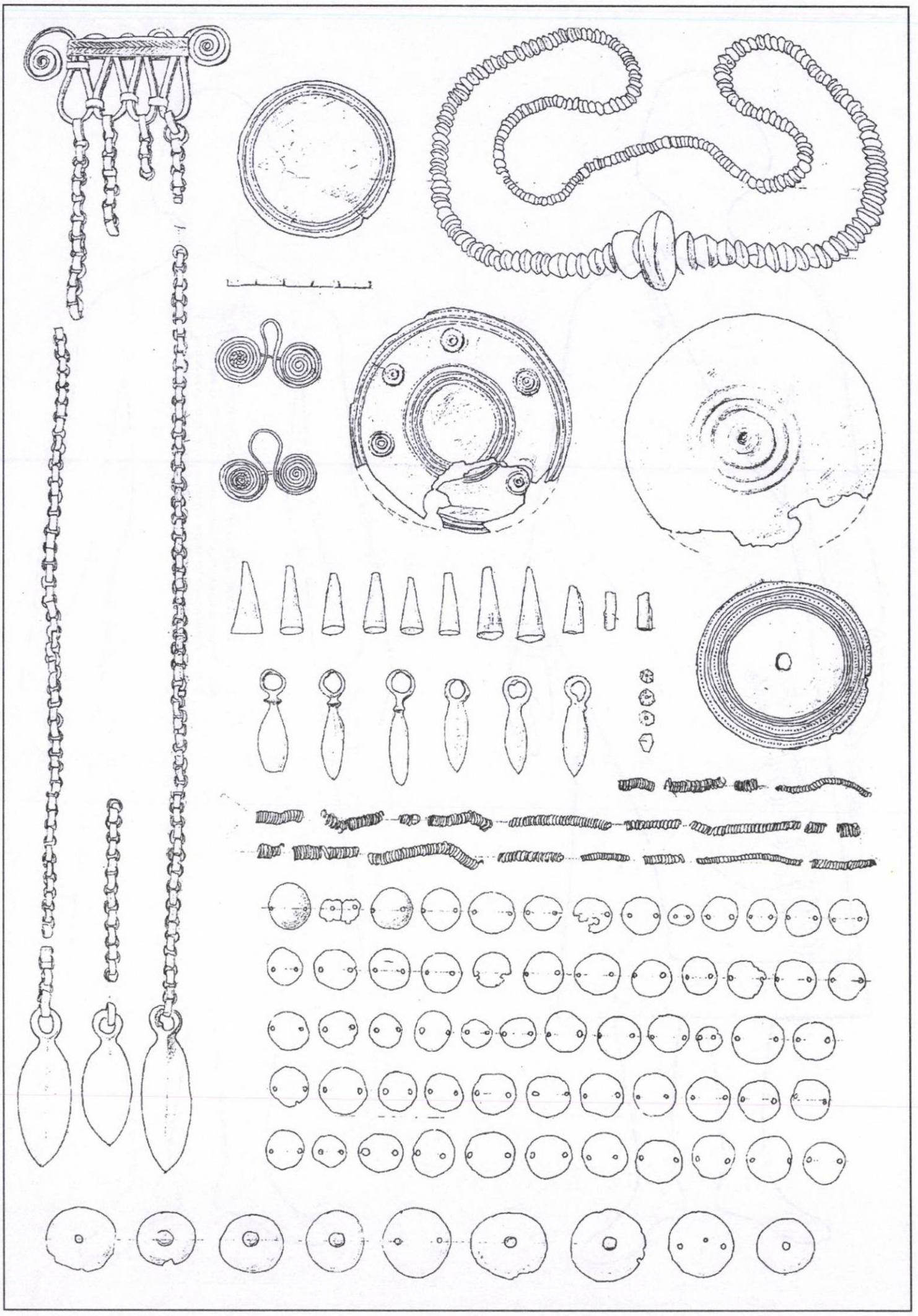

Abb. 6. Zalaszentmihály-Pötréte, Schatzfund (verschiedene Maβstabe)

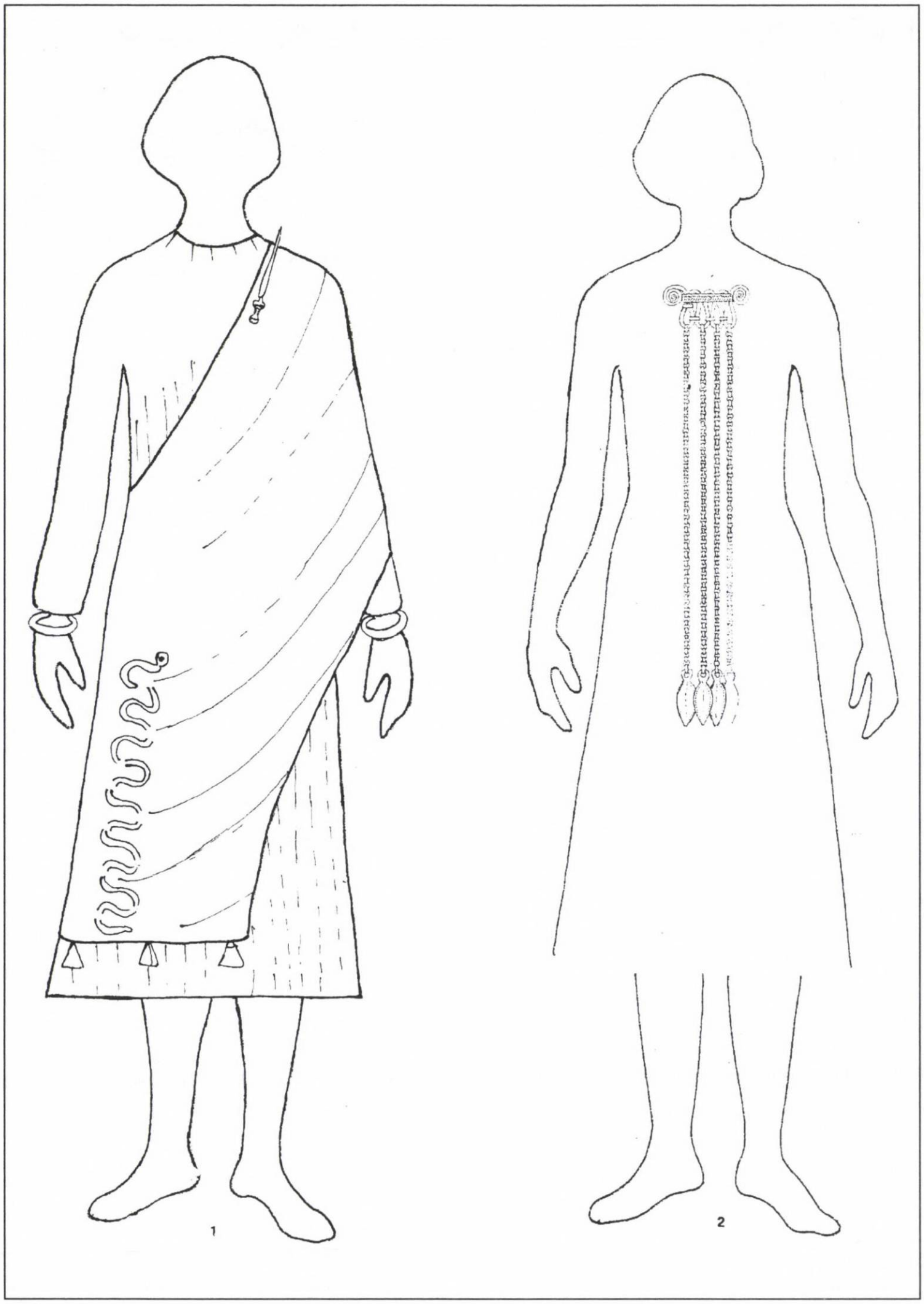

Abb. 7. 1. Bakonyjákó I/ Gr. 4 (nach Jankovits 1992); 2. Zalaszentmihály-Pötréte (nach Müller 1972)

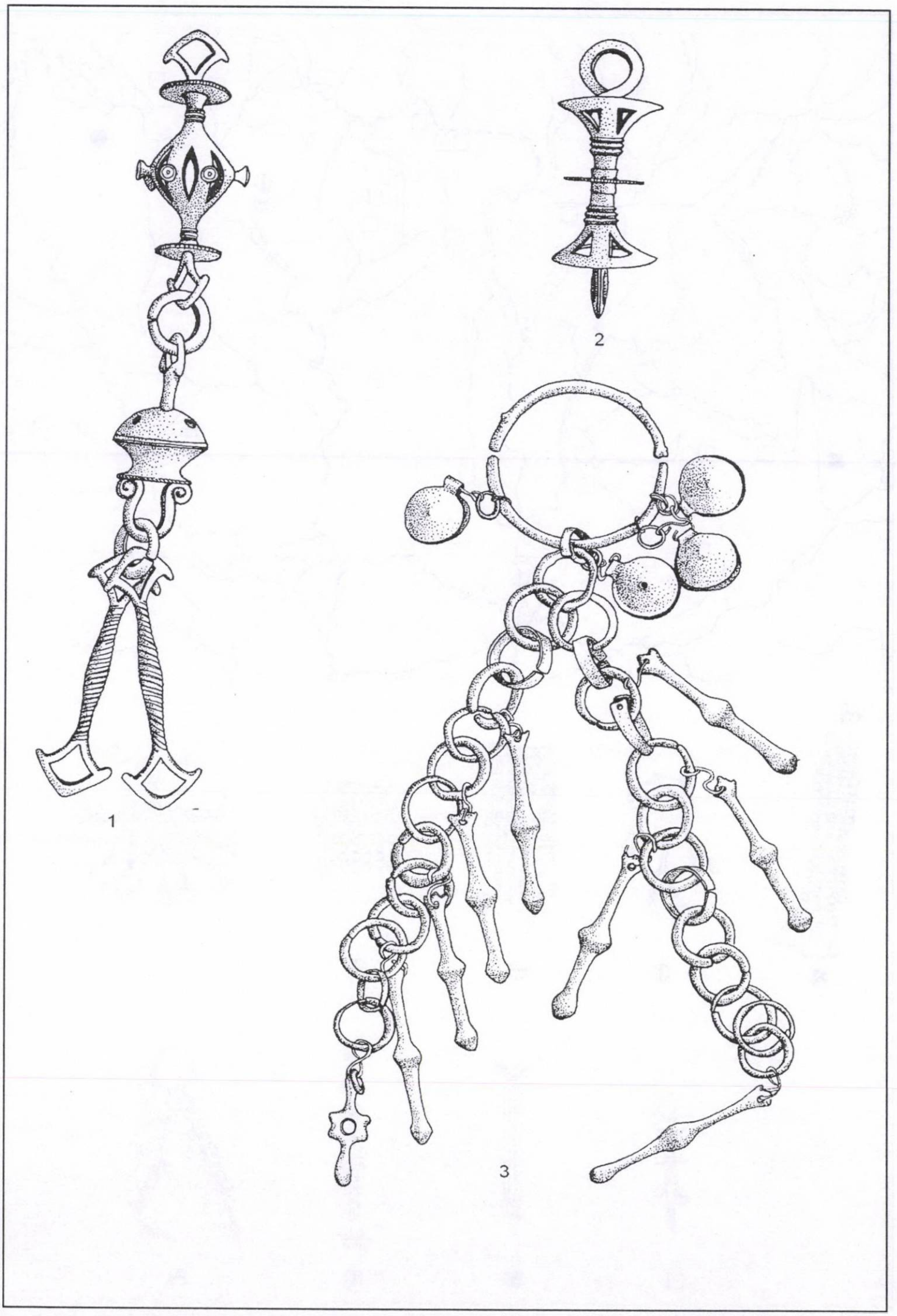

Abb. 8. 1-2. Kisterenye; 3. Békés (nach Kemenczei 2005) (verschiedene Maβstabe)

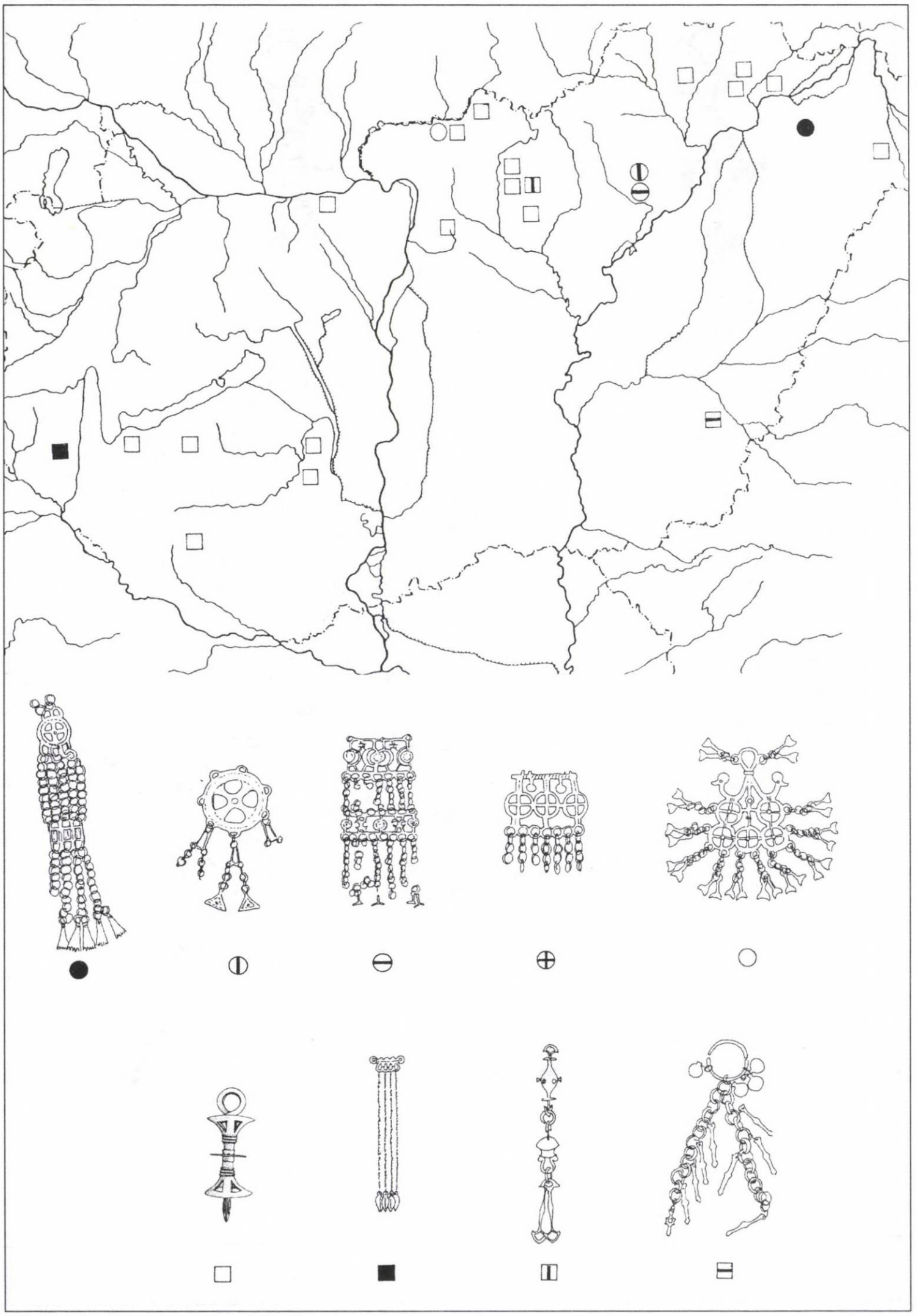

Abb. 9. Verbreitungskarte □ unbestimmbar Typ, fragmentierte Teile

Mehrfache Urnenbestattungen im Gräberfeld von Zagyvapálfalva (Vorläufige Ergebnisse aus der Grabungskampagne 2007)

Guba Szilvia

Einführung

In den vergangenen zwei Jahren haben wir unter der Grabungsleitung von Andrea Vaday in Zagyvapálfalva (heute Salgótarján) auf dem Gebiet des gut bekannten spätbronzezeitlichen Gräberfeldes, zuerst eine Probegrabung (2007) und ein Jahr später eine Flächengrabung durchgeführt.[1] Als Ergebnis der Forschungen wurden insgesamt 1380 Befunde (Abb. 1.) aus drei archäologischen Perioden ans Tageslicht gefördert.[2]

Während der Grabungskampagne 2007 sind insgesamt 120 Gräber freigelegt worden (Abb. 2.), leider war die Hälfte der Gräber durch spätere archäologische Befunde, bzw. neuzeitliche Bautätigkeit zerstört. Trotzdem konnte es festgestellt werden, dass die allgemeinen Bestattungssitten von denen der bekannten Gräberfeldern des Pilinyer-Kyjatice Kulturkreises keine wesentliche Abweichung aufweisen.

In unserer Studie möchten wir, in unserem Vortrag bereits vorgeführten Phänomen der mehrfachen Bestattungen ausführlicher darstellen und zu weiterführenden Gedanken bzw. Fragestellungen anregen.[3]

In der älteren archäologischen Literatur werden die dicht nebeneinander aufgedeckten Urnengräber verschiedener bronzezeitlichen Kulturen als „Urnennester" beschrieben.[4] Bereits während der Grabungen die J. Hillebrand in Zagyvapálfalva durchführte, machte er auf die dicht nebeneinander bestatteten Urnen aufmerksam.[5] Leider ist es heute (auf Grund der fehlenden Grabungsdokumentation) nicht mehr feststellbar, ob er vielleicht auch mehrfache Urnenbestattungen freilegte. P. Patay machte gleiche Beobachtungen im Gräberfeld von Nagybátony, er unterschied aber zwischen den nestartig aufgestellten Urnen[6] (dicht aneinander gereihte einzelne Gräber) und den großen Grabgruppen.[7] Im Falle dieser Letztgenannten können auf mehrfache Bestattungen gefolgert werden, diese Vermutung wird teilweise durch analoge Gräber aus anderer Gräberfeldern (z.B. Radzovce) bzw. durch die, in den letzten Jahren in Zagyvapálfalva durchgeführten archäologischen und anthropologischen Untersuchungen unterstützt.

Die wichtigsten Fragen beziehen sich auf die anthropologische Zusammensetzung der mehrfachen Bestattungen, und auf die „Postbrand-Rituale", durch die die Knochen vom Scheiterhaufen/Usstrinum eingesammelt und beigesetzt wurden. Demnach stellt sich die Frage, inwieweit die Gräber mit Knochenresten mehrerer Personen als mehrfache Bestattungen beurteilt werden können? Wie viel und welche Knochen sollten präsent sein um eine derartige Frage überhaupt beantworten zu können? In wieweit ist das Einsammeln der Knochen nach der Verbrennung "klinisch rein", systematisch oder sogar selektiv, und in wieweit sind die Fragmente, die auf eine Zweit/Drittperson andeuten, Absicht oder reiner Zufall?

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[1] Guba–Vaday 2007, Guba–Vaday 2008.

[2] Neben den spätbronzezeitlichen Gräbern wurden Siedlungsbefunde aus der römischen Kaiserzeit, bzw. aus der Árpáden-Zeit freigelegt.

[3] Die im Jahre 2008 in Satu Mare vorgetragene vorläufige Gräberfeldanalyse hat inzwischen ihre Aktualität verloren, da die Zahl der Gräber während der Grabungskampagne 2008 auf 800 wuchs. Die Bearbeitung der Funde ist im Gange.

[4] S. z.B. Kelebia (Zalotay 1957), Lovasberény (Pósta 1897)

[5] Auf die mehrfachen Bestattungen in Zagyvapálfalva (Urne mit kalzinierten Knochen, bzw. kleineres Gefäß mit kalzinierten Kinderknochen) machte bereits J. Hillebrand aufmerksam. (Hillebrand 1929. 35) Während unserer Grabungen im Jahre 2008 haben wir weitere solche Gräber beobachtet, da die anthropologischen Ergebnisse dieser uns noch nicht zur Verfügung stehen, werden hier nur die „großen" Gräber mit mehrfachen Bestattungen näher untersucht.

[6] Patay 1954. 34.

[7] Patay 1954. 35.

Die Beschreibung der Befunde

Aus der Grabungskampagne 2007 sind insgesamt 3 größere Grabgruppen zum Vorschein gekommen, die mehrfache Bestattungen beinhalteten.[8] Zwei davon sind rechteckige Grabgruben in O-W Richtung, wobei die Gefäße in zwei parallele Reihen aufgestellt waren.

1. Grabgruppe (Befund 18-19-20-21-23-24) (Abb. 3.1.)

Ein größeres rechteckiges Grab, das durch spätere Befunde an der westlichen bzw. östlichen Seite zerstört wurde. Die Gefäße sind in 2 parallele, Reihen dicht aneinander angeordnet, wobei mehrere Urnen Knochenreste mehrerer Personen beinhalteten.

18: Urne, wurde an der W-Seite von einem modernen Störung zerstört.[9] Beinhaltete kalzinierte Knochen und zwei Bruchstücke von einem bronzenen Armband, Bronzespirale, und 14 Glasperlen. Die Amphore beinhaltete Knochenreste von zwei Individuen: wahrscheinlich einen erwachsenen Mann (?) und ein Kleinkind (2-3 Jahre).

19: An der südöstlichen Seite durch eine moderne Grube zerstörte Amphore. Sie beinhaltete Knochenreste, aus denen weder das Lebensalter noch das Geschlecht der Verstorbenen konnte bestimmt werden.

20: Urne mit viel kalzinierten Knochen. An der südlichen Seite (teilweise unter der Urne) lag ein kleiner Krug, als Begleitgefäß. Unter den Aschen kam ein Bronzering zu Tage. Die Amphore beinhaltete die Knochenreste eines Jugendlichen.

21: Rötlich-braun gebranntes Gefäß, dessen östliche Seite von Bf. 23 geschnitten (und zerstört) wurde.

23: Begleitgefäß, das den Bf. 21 schnitt.[10]

24: Urne, deren westliche Seite durch den Bf. 48. zerstört wurde. Die Amphore beinhaltete wenig kalzinierte Knochen, aus denen ein(e) Erwachsene(r) (?) und ein Kleinkind bestimmt wurden.

Das Grab beinhaltete insgesamt 7 Gefäße, davon 5 Amphoren, die kalzinierte Knochen enthielten. Nur zu einer Amphore (Bf. 20) konnte mit Sicherheit ein Begleitgefäß zugezählt werden. Im Grab wurden 4 Kinder, zwei erwachsene Männer und eine weitere Person ohne nähere Geschlechts- und Altersbestimmung. Zwei von den Amphoren enthielten die Überreste mehrerer Personen (Kind + erwachsener Mann und Kind + ?), die anhand von Zähnen und Schädelknochenbruchstücke mit großer Sicherheit bestimmt wurden.

2. Grabgruppe (Befund 25-39-40) (Abb. 3.2.)

Ovale Grabgrube, Axe in NNW-SSO Richtung.

40: Die nördliche Amphore beinhaltete viel kalzinierte Knochen eines erwachsenen Mannes (?) und einen Bronzering, Neben und unter der Urne in einer Kreisform standen die Begleitgefässe („A-G").[11]

39: Krug mit wenig kalzinierte Knochen, aus denen ein Kleinkind zwischen den 3-4 Lebensalter bestimmt wurde.

25. Urne mit wenig kalzinierte Knochen, die auf einen juvenilen Individuum hindeuten.

Das Grab enthielt insgesamt 3 Gefäße mit Knochenresten von jeweils einem Individuum, bzw. 7 weitere Begleitgefässe. Die anthropologische Zusammensetzung der Dreierbestattung besteht aus einem erwachsenen Mann, einem Jugendlichen und einem Kind.

3. Grabgruppe (Befund 105, 108, 113, 114, 115, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130) (Abb. 3.3.)

Rechteckige, seichte Grabgrube mit abgerundeten Ecken, Axe in OW-Richtung. Das Grab beinhaltete zwei Gefäßgruppen, die voneinander durch einige größere Steine symbolisch getrennt wurden.

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[8] Es soll hier vermerkt werden, dass in der Grabungskampagne 2008 6 weitere, ähnlich große Gräber ans Tageslicht kamen, deren anthropologische Untersuchung im Gange ist.

[9] Im Befund 48 (moderne Grube) haben wir eine größere Steinplatte und einen kleinen Becher gefunden, die vielleicht zu dieser Grabgruppe gehörten.

[10] Es ist möglich, dass wir hier mit einer späteren Niederlegung des Gefäßes rechnen müssen. (?)

[11] „E" konnte wegen ihrer Fragmentiertheit und schlechtem Zustand nicht geborgen werden.

105 Untere Hälfte einer, durch moderne Aktivitäten auf der Gelände zerstörten Urne, die kalzinierte Knochen beinhaltete.

108 Unteres Drittel einer Urne, die wenig kalzinierte Knochen beinhaltete.

113 Begleitgefäß, beinhaltete kleine Kieselsteine.

114 Begleitgefäß (Schüssel), in der Mündung mit einem kleinen Krug (**114/B**).

130 Begleitgefäß.

115 Urne, bedeckt mit einem Schüssel mit der Mündung nach oben. (**115/B**). In der Urne viel kalzinierten Knochen und wenig Holzkohlenreste.

124 Urne mit viel kalzinierten Knochen. In der Mündung der Urne ein kleiner Becher. (**124/B**)

125 Amphore (?) mit, in der Mündung einem weiteren Gefäß (wahrscheinlich Schüssel) dessen oberer Teil bereits zerstört wurde (**125/B**).

126 Begleitgefäß in einem sehr schlechten Zustand, konnte nur teilweise geborgen werden. In der Mündung lag ein kleiner Krug (**126/B**).

127 Begleitgefäß (Amphore), mit kräftigen Spuren von sekundärer Brennung, so dass es nicht geborgen werden konnte.

128 Urne mit kalzinierten Knochen.

129 Urne mit kalzinierten Knochen.

Das Grab beinhaltete insgesamt 6 Urnen mit kalzinierten Knochen von 11 Personen, zwei Amphoren ohne menschliche Überreste, und 9 weitere Begleitgefäße.

Im Grab wurden insgesamt 3 erwachsene Männer, zwei erwachsene Frauen, ein(e) Jugendliche(r), 4 Kinder (unter 8 Jahren), sowie eine weitere Person (ohne mögliche Bestimmung des Alters und des Geschlechts) beigesetzt. In einer Urne konnten eine Dreierbestattung (zwei erwachsene Männer+Kind) und in zwei weiteren Urnen Doppelbestattungen (erwachsene Frau+? und erwachsene Frau+Kind) bestimmt werden.

Problemen der Untersuchung von mehrfachen Urnenbestattungen

Die sowohl archäologischen, als auch anthropologischen Analysen der bronzezeitlichen mehrfachen Brandgräbern im Karpatenbecken lassen uns weitere Fragen stellen, deren Beantwortung bei weitem nicht befriedigend ist.

Als größtes Problem erweist sich die Tatsache, dass die Knochenreste aus eingeäscherten Gräbern systematisch nicht oder nur sehr selten aufgehoben wurden.[12] Dies kann einerseits damit erklärt werden, dass es nicht genügend Referenzen und konkret ausgearbeitete Untersuchungsmethoden zur Verfügung standen, um die nötigen Analysen durchführen zu können. In manchen Fällen wird das Aufheben der Knochenreste durch ihre Fragmentiertheit erschwert, sogar unmöglich gemacht.[13]

Falls es anthropologische Proben aus Brandgräbern überhaupt entnommen wurden, besteht noch immer die Unsicherheit, ob durch spätere Beschädigungen, Störungen am Befund oder durch nicht gemäße archäologische Grabung, Behandlung der Funde nach der Grabung Knochenreste zusammengemischt wurden.[14] Eine solche Zumischung von Knochenresten anderer Individuen erschwert eine eindeutige Beurteilung des Zufalls oder des Absicht.

Zur Bestimmung der doppelten/mehrfachen Brandbestattungen wurden mehrere Definitionen herausgearbeitet.

Zs. Zoffmann unterscheidet zwischen *Doppelbestattung* (in einem Grab in zwei Amphoren jeweils ein bestattetes Individuum), *Kollektivbestattung* (zwei Individuen in einer Urne) und *Teilbestattung* (die Überreste einer einzigen Person in mehreren Gefäßen im selben Grab).[15] Anthropologisch gesehen bereitet die Bestimmung von zwei Individuen vom

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[12] Bis in den 70-er Jahren wurden kalzinierte Knochen nicht systematisch eingesammelt. Ausnahme ist das Gräberfeld in Mosonszentmiklós.

[13] Siehe dazu z.B. Ilon 1996. 112 und 2004. 214, Farkas-Lipták 1975. 229.

[14] K. Zoffmann 1971. 44.

[15] Zoffmann 2008. 25-26.

unterschiedlichen Lebensalter in einem Grab oder in einer Urne keine Schwierigkeit.[16] Die Robustizität und der doppelter Satz von (im Normalfall) unpaariger Knochenteile bietet auch beim selben Verbrennungsgrad gute Anhaltspunkte zur Unterscheidung.[17]

Nach Holck muss eine Doppelbestattung folgende Voraussetzungen erfüllen:

a) doppelter Satz zweiseitiger Knochenreste, b) Knochenteile, die auf verschiedenes Alter/Geschlecht hindeuten, c) Knochenreste mit unterschiedlicher Größe und Struktur, d) Knochen mit unterschiedlicher Verbrennungsgrad und Farbe und e) größere Menge kalzinierte Knochenreste.[18]

Die oben angeführten Grabgruppen aus Zagyvapálfalva können anhand der anthropologischen Ergebnissen als mehrfache Bestattungen gekennzeichnet werden. Die Bewertung der 2. Grabgruppe mit den drei, jeweils nur ein einziges Individuum beinhaltenden Urnen erscheint am einfachsten: hier kann eine Dreierbestattung rekonstruiert werden. Im Falle der anderen zwei besprochenen Grabgruppen sind sowohl die Interpretation als auch die Auswertung der Gräber etwas problematischer. Die Bezeichnung *Kollektivbestattung* liegt zwar auf der Hand, diesen Begriff mit Inhalt zu füllen mag bei der jetzigen Stand der Forschung vielleicht noch zu unbegründet zu erscheinen. Unseres Ansichtens nach ist der Versuch zur Deutung der möglichen Gründe des Phänomens–auf Grund der zusammengetragenen sowohl archäologischen, als auch anthropologischen Fakten und Daten– ein erster Schritt zur Rekonstruktion der konkreten und tatsächlichen Ereignisse der einstigen Totenrituale.

Mehrfache Urnenbestattungen im Lichte der anthropologischen Ergebnissen aus der bronzezeitlichen Karpatenbecken

Wie es oben angeführt wurde, das größte Problem zur Deutung der Mehrfachbestattungen ist das Fehlen der untersuchbaren Proben und der Mangel an anthropologischen Analysen. Werfen wir ein Blick auf die Brandgräber etlicher bronzezeitlichen Perioden des Karpatenbeckens, wirkt dieses Bild fast ernüchternd. Im folgenden möchten wir eine Zusammenfassung–ohne auf Vollständigkeit zu streben–über mehrfache Brandbestattungen darlegen.

Frühbronzezeit

Über den allgemeinen Bestattungsritus der frühbronzezeitlichen Makó-Kosihy-Caka-Kultur gab es in der ungarischen archäologischen Literatur bis vor einigen Jahrzehnten nicht einmal eine Konsens. Aus der zahlreichen Grabungen der letzten zwanzig Jahren freigelegte Gräber bzw. Gräberfelder wurden zwar systematisch veröffentlicht[19], es wurden aber nur vereinzelte Gräber anthropologisch untersucht.[20] Anhand der anthropologischen Ergebnissen besitzen wir heute über mehrfache Bestattungen der Kultur keine Kenntnisse. Genauso wenige Leichenbrandbestattungen der Nyírség-Kultur wurden bislang anthropologisch erforscht[21], keine von denen deutet (weder anthropologisch, noch archäologisch) auf mehrfache Bestattungen hin.[22] Anthropologische Analysen weiterer Brandgräber aus der Kisapostag-,[23] bzw. aus der Glockenbecher-Kultur sind vorläufig unpubliziert.[24]

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[16] Zoffmann 1971. 44.
[17] Zoffmann 1995. 171.
[18] Holck 2008. 115. Bei diesem letzten Punkt vermerkt er die größere Unsicherheit einer genauen Analyse.
[19] Dani 1998, Kulcsár 2002, Kulcsár-Szabó 2000, Tóth 2002.
[20] Siehe dazu Tóth 2002. Anm. 34.
[21] Szathmáry 1997.
[22] Im Grab 26 von Tiszavasvári-Városföldje wurden zwar zwei Individuen identifiziert, eine Tibia die auf eine Zweitperson hindeutete besaß keine Brandspuren, und wurde als Streufund/sekundärer Fund interpretiert. (DanI 1997. 51).
[23] Ergebnisse einiger Brandgräber aus Vörs-Battyányi disznólegelő, bzw. aus Ordacsehi-Csereföld sind veröffentlicht worden. (Zoffmann 1999. 39, Zoffmann 2004. 386).
[24] Im Glockenbecher-Gräberfeld aus Szigetszentmiklós identifizierte Kitti Köhler in zwei Brandschüttungsgräbern Knochenreste von jeweils zwei Personen. Für ihre freundliche Mitteilung sei es hier herzlich bedankt.

Die Frage der mehrfachen Bestattungen in der Hatvan-Kultur ist äußerst schwer, da es hier (weder auf der slowakischen, noch auf der ungarischen Seite des Verbreitungsgebietes) überhaupt keine anthropologischen Analysen zur Verfügung stehen. Die, an Keramikbeigaben reiche Gräber ließ die Forschung nur auf die eventuellen gesellschaftlichen Verhältnisse zurückführen, nicht aber auf mögliche mehrfachen Bestattungen.[25]

Aus der Frühbronzezeit sind mehrfache Bestattungen nur aus einem Gräberfeld der Nagyrév-Kultur aus Szigetszentmiklós-Felsőtag bekannt. Neben mehreren Teilbestattungen (Knochenreste der selben Person in mehreren Gefäßen) konnten eine dreifache, bzw. zwei Doppelbestattungen beschrieben werden.[26]

Mittlere Bronzezeit

Die ersten sicheren Daten über mehrfache Bestattungen sind in den Gräberfeldern der transdanubischen inkrustrierten Keramik zu erfassen. Der Brauch ist sowohl bei Urnengräbern, als auch bei Brandschüttungsgräbern zu beobachten.[27] Im Gräberfeld von Mosonszentmiklós erwähnt A. Uzsoki in einem Grab (Nr. 50) drei Amphoren mit jeweils viel kalzinierten Knochen, und interpretiert diese Erscheinung als mehrfache Bestattung.[28] Bei der Bearbeitung der anthropologischen Funde aus dem selben Gräberfeld kam Zs. Zoffmann zum Einsicht, dass in einigen Fällen, wo archäologisch gesehen eine mehrfache Bestattung nicht nachweisbar war, ergab die anthropologische Untersuchung Überresten von mehreren Individuen.[29] Bei den Bestattungen, in denen Gefäße die Überresten mehrerer Toten in sich hatten, handelte es sich–fast ohne Ausnahme–bei der einen Person um ein Kleinkind.

Auf dem Gebiet der Vatya-Kultur wurden bislang mehr als 4000 Gräber freigelegt, über die anthropologische Ergebnisse stehen uns lediglich kaum Informationen zur Verfügung. Die ersten anthropologischen Untersuchungen wurden an Skelettgräbern von Kelebia-Körösér und Üllő-Löbpuszta vorgenommen.[30] Im größten freigelegten Gräberfeld von Dunaújváros (als Folge der schwerigen Grabungsumständen) konnten die menschlichen Knochenreste systematisch nicht aufgehoben werden. Nur aus den archäologischen Beobachtungen geht es hervor, dass es in einigen Fällen mit Doppelbestattungen und in zwei Fällen mit einer Dreierbestattung gerechnet werden kann.[31] I. Bóna erwähnt in seiner Zusammenfassung nur flüchtig, dass „.... die Aschen in die Urne gelegt wurden, aber nicht immer sorgfältig eingesammelt. Von Knochensplittern, die auf kräftige Erwachsene hinweisen findet man oft recht verschiedene Mengen."[32]

Nur die Grabungen der letzten Jahrzehnten lieferten Daten zur anthropologischen Analyse der Vatya-Kultur[33] und wurde bisher nur eine einzige Doppelbestattung beschrieben und veröffentlicht.[34] Aus der anthropologischen Untersuchung der Gräber in Százhalombatta-Belső-Újföldek geht es hervor, dass–im Gegensatz zu früheren archäologischen Beobachtungen[35]–die Knochen der verbrannten Toten *nicht* in strenger anatomischen Folge in die Urne gelegt wurden.

Auf dem Verbreitungsgebiet der Füzesabony-Kultur erscheinen die birituellen Gräberfelder erst ab der klassischen und späten Phase. Die Doppelbestattungen bzw. mehrfachen Bestattungen wurden sowohl bei den Skelettgräbern als auch bei

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[25] Kalicz 1968. 148, Tárnoki 1993. 90.
[26] K. Zoffmann 1995. 171.
[27] Doppelbestattungen in Brandschüttungsgräbern konnte bislang in einem Grab von Bonyhád-Biogázüzem (freundliche Mitteilung von Tamás Hajdu) und in einem weiteren Grab aus Mosonszentmiklós identifiziert werden. (Kiss 2003. 253).
[28] Uzsoki 1963. 74.
[29] K. Zoffmann 1971. 44.
[30] Lipták 1957.
[31] Vicze 2001.
[32] Bóna 1975. 41.
[33] Ráckeve, K. Zoffmann 1995.
[34] Százhalombatta-Belső Újföldek, Hajdu in print.
[35] Vicze 1993. 92.

Brandschüttungsgräbern beobachtet. Die Freilegungen bei Polgár (Kenderföld) brachten ein Leichenbrandgrab mit insgesamt drei Bestatteten zum Vorschein. Die anthropologische Zusammensetzung der Bestattung (Mann+Frau+Kind) ließ die Verfassern auf eine Interpretation einer Familienbestattung schlussfolgern.[36]

Einige reich ausgestatteten Leichenbrandgräber aus dem gleichfalls birituellen Gräberfeld von Streda nad Bodrogom wurden bei B. Polla als Gruppengräber beschrieben.[37] Da es keine anthropologischen Analysen vorgenommen wurden, verblieben seine Beobachtungen über eventuelle mehrere bestatteten Individuen nur Vermutung.

Spätbronzezeit

Aus der Spätbronzezeit bzw. Urnenfelderzeit besitzen wir nur sparsame Informationen über anthropologische Ergebnisse, nur Teile von Gräberfeldern bzw. Gräber wurden bisweilen bearbeitet. Vor allem Transdanubien zeigt große Lücken.[38] Wesentlich besser ist das Bild auf dem Gebiet der anthropologischen Auswertung von bronzezeitlichen Leichenbrände im östlichen Teil des Landes nicht. Die Skelettfunde der zahlreichen Gräberfeldern der Hügelgräberkultur wurden zwar untersucht[39], die am selben Fundort ans Tageslicht gekommenen Leichenbrände wurden dennoch systematisch nicht analysiert.[40] Die menschlichen Knochenresten aus dem, in den 1970-ern freiglegten birituellen Gräberfeld der Hügelgräberkultur aus Jánoshida wurde erst in den letzten Jahren ausgewertet.[41] Aus unserem Sicht ist es besonders wichtig, dass in 6 Urnengräbern jeweils zwei Personen identifiziert wurden.[42] Auch im vorläufig unpublizierten Gräberfeld von Rákóczifalva-Kastélydomb sind mehrfache Leichenbrandbestattungen bekannt.[43]

Auf dem Gebiet der Pilinyer-Kyjatice Kulturkreises im Gebiet des heutigen Ungarns–trotzt der Erschließung von mehr als 3000 Gräbern–stehen uns außer archäologische Beobachtungen ärmliche anthropologische Ergebnisse zur Verfügung. Anthropologisch wurde nur das Material eines einzigen Gräberfeldteiles bearbeitet, die untersuchten Knochenreste sind aber wegen ihrer Geringheit zu weiteren Interpretationsmöglichkeiten nicht geeignet.[44] Es gibt zwar Beobachtungen in anderen Gräbern der Pilinyer-Kultur mit mehreren Urnen, die auf mehrfache Bestattungen hindeuten würden, in der Regel beinhaltete aber nur eine einzige Urne die kalzinierten Knochen.[45]

Trotzt der geringen Daten sind wir in der Lage–dank P. Patay's Grabungen in Nagybátony–über mehrfache Bestattungen berichten zu können. Innerhalb der Pilinyer-Kultur lieferten die ersten sicheren Angaben über große, mehrfache Bestattungen die auf dem Gebiet des Gräberfeldes beobachtete 4 größere Grabgruppen.[46] Die erste Grabgruppe wurde noch vor dem Beginn der eigentlichen Freilegung zerstört, ein weiteres Grab konnte nur teilweise freigelegt werden. Dieses Grab beinhaltete 4 Urnen mit kalzinierten Knochen, mindestens 5 kleinere Beigefäße und einen Miniaturofen. Das Grab Nr. 209 beinhaltete 3 Urnen mit kalzinierten Knochen und 15 Beigefäße. Im Grab Nr. 872-873 lagen zwei Urnen und 10 weitere kleinere Gefäße, unter den Bronzefunden sei eine Miniaturdiademe hervorgehoben. Das im Gräberfeld freigelegte größte Grab (Nr. 934-941) beinhaltete 6 Urnen mit kalzinierten

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[36] Dani–V. Szabó 2004. 98.
[37] Polla 1960. 337.
[38] Siehe dazu Ilon 2004, K. Zoffmann 1999, 2008.
[39] Siehe dazu Hajdu 2008. 66.
[40] Im Gräberfeld von Tápé wurden von insgesamt 36 Urnengräber anthropologisch nur zwei ausgewertet. (Farkas-Lipták 1975).
[41] Csányi 1980, Hajdu 2008.
[42] Hajdu 2008. 78, Table 6.
[43] Insgesamt sind drei Doppelbestattungen identifiziert worden, freundliche Mitteilung von Tamás Hajdu. Für die wertvollen Informationen über die Forschungsergebnisse bedanke ich mich bei ihm an dieser Stelle.
[44] Aus dem Gräberfeld sind insgesamt 10 Gräber bekannt, anthropologisches Material stand aus 3 Gräbern zur Verfügung. (Guba 2008, Köhler 2008).
[45] Im Gräberfeld von Jászberény-Cserőhalom wurden in einigen Gräbern mehrere Urnen bzw. Amphoren erwähnt (Csalog-Kemenczei 1966. 67).
[46] Patay 1954. 35.

Knochen, eine Amphore ohne Knochenreste und insgesamt 34 Begleitgefäße. Laut P. Patay lagen diese Gräber von den anderen schlichten Gräbern nicht abgesondert.

Mehrfache Urnenbestattungen wurden auch im Gräberfeld von Radzovce durch V. Furmánek freigelegt. Die anthropologische Analyse ergab in 43 Fällen (aus insgesamt 1334 Gräbern) Doppel- bzw. mehrfachen Bestattungen in verschiedener anthropologischer Zusammensetzung. Lediglich nur ein einziges großes Grab (216/69)[47] beinhaltete Überreste von mehr als zwei Individuen: die einer erwachsenen Frau und zwei Kleinkinder.[48]

Die auf dem Gelände des ungestörten Gräberfeldes der Kyjatice-Kultur durchgeführten Grabungen der letzten Jahre in Cinobaňa (Szinóbánya, Slowakei)[49] lieferten einige mehrfache Bestattungen ans Tageslicht, deren Bewertung im Gange ist.[50]

Ein weiteres Grab außerhalb der Grenzen des heutigen Ungarns ist uns aus Uzon-Kupántag (Ozun, Rumänien), aus dem Kreis der Noua-Kultur bekannt. Die Urnenbestattung beinhaltete Überreste zweier Individuen, und zwar die eines Kleinkindes sowie einer/eines Erwachsenen. Da dieses Grab die erste und einzige anthropologisch beschriebene Leichenbrandbestattung der Noua-Kultur ist, können weitere Daten nicht herbeigezogen werden.[51]

Anhand der oben angeführten Beispielen–trotz der ärmlichen Informationen–geht es klar hervor, dass die Beisetzung mehrerer Leichenbrände im selben Grab (oder sogar in der selben Urne) durch die ganze Bronzezeit im Karpatenbecken durchaus üblich war. Zur Deutung dieser mehrfachen Bestattungen fehlen uns leider archäologisch-kulturhistorische Anhaltspunkte, die eine (oder mehrere) Interpretation(en) ermöglichen würden. Die Frage der mehrfachen Bestattungen wurde von vielen Wissenschaftlern (Anthropologen, Archäologen) auf verschiedenster Weise angeregt.[52]

Unsere archäologische Beobachtungen während der Grabungen zeigen eindeutig, dass die kalzinierte Knochen beinhaltenden Amphoren gleichzeitig ins Grab gelegt wurden. Eine spätere Bestattung (Wiedereröffnung des Grabes und sekundäre Beisetzung) konnte nicht beobachtet werden.[53] All das bedeutet noch immer nicht, das die Personen im selben Grab gleichzeitig verstarben und auch gleichzeitig verbrannt wurden.

In der Bestattung einer Frau zusammen mit einem Mann müssen nicht in jedem Fall Ehepaare verbergen. Das gleichzeitige, spontane Ableben von zwei oder mehreren Personen kann nicht immer befriedigend erklärt werden, auf jedem Fall taucht die Gedanke einer Epidemie oft auf.[54]

Für die Erklärung der Doppelbestattungen einer erwachsenen Frau mit Kleinkind liegt eine oft zitierte und logische (aber auch häufig ohne Kritik behandelte) Antwort auf der Hand: Mutter mit Kind, die nach der Geburt oder/und in Folge der Geburt aus dem Leben schieden. Dieser Interpretation widerspricht die Tatsache, dass die Kinder–im Fall von Zagyvapálfalva–in solchen Gräbern immer älter sind als Neugeborene (oft Infant II) und dass das Alter der Frauen als Adultus, oft sogar als Maturus bestimmt wurde. Es gibt aber einen anderen Aspekt, der durch Experimente/forensische Untersuchungen im Vordergrund treten dürfte. Das nämlich zur Verbrennung eines Kinderkörpers fast dreimal soviel Zeit benötigt wird, als zu der eines Erwachsenen.[55]

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[47] Furmánek 1977. 313. und Abb. 17.
[48] Furmánek-Stloukal 1985. 139.
[49] Furmánek-Mitas in print.
[50] Freundliche Mitteilung von Jaroslava Pávelková Csc, Karl-Ferdinands-Universität Prag.
[51] Hajdu et al 2008. 33.
[52] Holck 2008. 116.
[53] Nur in einem einzigen Fall könnte eventuell ein Begleitgefäß später beigesetzt worden sein. Siehe Bf. 23!
[54] Die Frage in diesem Fall stellt sich ob die, durch solche Krankheiten Verstorbenen auch schon damals im selben Gräberfeld unter den selben Umständen beigesetzt worden waren?
[55] Das Experiment wurde am Anatomischen Institut in Oslo in einem modernen Krematorium durchgeführt. Bei einer Temperatur von 850°C benötigte man fast 3 Stunden zur Verbrennung und die Knochen waren nach dem Prozess nur mäßig gebrannt. (Holck 2008. 119).

Dieses Phänomen wird bei Holck durch den unterschiedlichen Prozentsatz der (leicht) zündfähigen (combustible parts) und weniger zündfähigen Stoffen (non-combustible parts) des Körpers erklärt, der durch das Alter und Entwicklung des Körpers bedingt ist. Zündfähige Teile (wie Fett und Proteine) erleichtern das Brennen, während Wasser und Asche Wärmeentzug hervorrufen und somit das Brennen verlangsamen.[56] Der Körper eines Erwachsenen beinhaltet im Verhältnis mehr Fett und Proteine und die Verbrennung geht relativ rasch voran, wobei die Kinderkörper wesentlich mehr Zeit zur vollständigen Brennung benötigen. In diesem Zusammenhang wagt P. Holck die Vermutung, dass wenn Erwachsene zusammen mit Kindern verbrannt wurden, sie quasi als Wärmeerzeuger dienten.[57] Obwohl diese Vorstellung unseres Ansichtens nach–am Beispiel der Doppelgräber aus Zagyvapálfalva–ein wenig waghalsig erscheint, seine Beobachtungen und Experimente bei der Verbrennung von Kinderkörpern sind plausibel.[58]

Über die mehrfache Verbrennung der Toten (mehrere Toten wurden auf dem selben Scheiterhaufen gleichzeitig verbrannt) besitzen wir keine sichere Daten. Im Falle einiger Gräber aus Zagyvapálfalva (z.B.: Grabgruppe 1. Bf. 18 und 24), in denen die Knochenreste mehrerer Individuen in einer Urne zu finden waren, kann die gemeinsame Verbrennung in Acht gezogen werden. Im Falle der Grabgruppe 2 (Bf. 25, 39, 40) muss entweder mit drei einzelnen Scheiterhaufen gerechnet werden und einem gleichzeitigen Verbrennungsakt, oder wurden die Leichnahmen auf dem selben Scheiterhaufen einzeln, nacheinander verbrannt.

Im Falle der anderen zwei großen Grabgruppen könnte auch eine gleichzeitig mehrere Toten beinhaltende, „spektakuläre" Totenverbrennung vorgestellt werden.

Über die Methode des Einsammelns der Knochenreste wurde oft diskutiert. Der Mangel an bestimmten Knochenteile in den Graburnen regte einige Forscher an, den Zusammenhang zwischen der Menge der Knochenreste und Größe der Bestattungsurne zu untersuchen. Experimente zeigen jedoch, dass es zwischen der Menge und Zusammensetzung der Knochen in einer Graburne mit der Größe (bzw. Rauminhalt) dieser nicht in Verbindung gebracht werden kann.[59]

Zusammenfassung

Das Thema der Totenrituale, Bestattungsritus, überhaupt der Tod als Phänomen stand seit Anfang der ethnologischen/anthropologischen und archäologischen Forschungen im Mittelpunkt, und wurde in der anglo-amerikanischen Literatur unter dem zusammenfassenden Begriff der *mortuary practice* beschrieben. Die rituale Akt der Bestattung, also die bewusste Behandlung der Toten vor, während und nach der Beisetzung war seit dem Jung-Paläolithikum eine, durch zahlreiche archäologische Forschungen bewiesene Tatsache.[60] Es sind zwar unzählige archäologische Studien über Bestattungssitten der einzelnen prähistorischen Kulturen des Karpatenbeckens erschienen, doch das Thema der Totenrituale, Pre- und Postbegräbnissritualen (das „eigentliche" *mortuary practice*) wurden in der ungarischen Archäologie auf der theoretischen Ebene wenig debattiert. Die Rekonstruktion der Totenrituale archäologischer Zeiten ist auch dadurch erschwert, dass nur ein Teil dieser als archäologische Daten aufgenommen werden können. Die Bewertung der Bestattungsriten und –Sitten wurden lange hindurch ausschließlich aus der Sicht der–manchmal sehr wenigen–archäologischen Quellen durchgeführt, ohne die Untersuchungsergebnisse anderer Disziplinen herangezogen zu haben. Die Ergebnisse, die z.B. durch die anthropologischen Untersuchungen unsere

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[56] Holck 2008. 118.
[57] Holck 2008. 119.
[58] Wie auch schon Hillebrand beobachtete, waren die Kinderknochen in separaten kleineren Gefässen beigesetzt, über eine gleichzeitige Doppelverbrennung auf dem selben Scheiterhaufen kann also hier nicht gesprochen werden. (Hillebrand 1929. 35).
[59] May 2001. 223.
[60] Bereczki 2004. 44.

archäologischen Beobachtungen ergänzen–in manchen Fällen sogar widerlegen–zeigen die Notwendigkeit einer engen Zusammenarbeit zwischen verschiedenen Disziplinen.

Anhand der oben angeführten Gräber aus Zagyvapálfalva kann zusammenfassend folgendes festgestellt werden. Die im Gräberfeld freigelegten großen Grabgruppen beinhalteten mehrere Leichen, die wenn auch nicht alle gleichzeitig verstarben und verbrannt, auf jedem Fall gleichzeitig bestattet wurden. Das Aufsammeln der Knochenreste vom Scheiterhaufen ist im Falle dieser Gräber eine sorgfältige und bewusste Aktivität. In den Gefäßen, unter den Knochenresten fanden wir nur selten - abgesehen von wenigen Holzkohlpartikeln–Reste von, das Brennen begünstigenden Rohstoffen. Daraus können wiederum auf ein sorgfältiges Einsammeln der Knochen schließen und/oder die Reinigung/das Waschen der Knochen vermuten.[61] Die Deutung der Kollektivbestattungen innerhalb des Gräberfeldes ist eine große Herausforderung, die ohne die Analyse des gesamten Gräberfeldes und die Klärung der chronologischen-kulturellen Stellung der Funde kaum erfassbar ist. Trotzdem sind wir der Meinung, dass die Besprechung dieser Teilfragen, die teilweise auch zu weiteren Forschung anregen sollte, als Schlüssel zur Möglichkeit der wahrhaften Interpretation dienen kann.

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[61] Beispiele an indischen Forschungen. Holck 2008.

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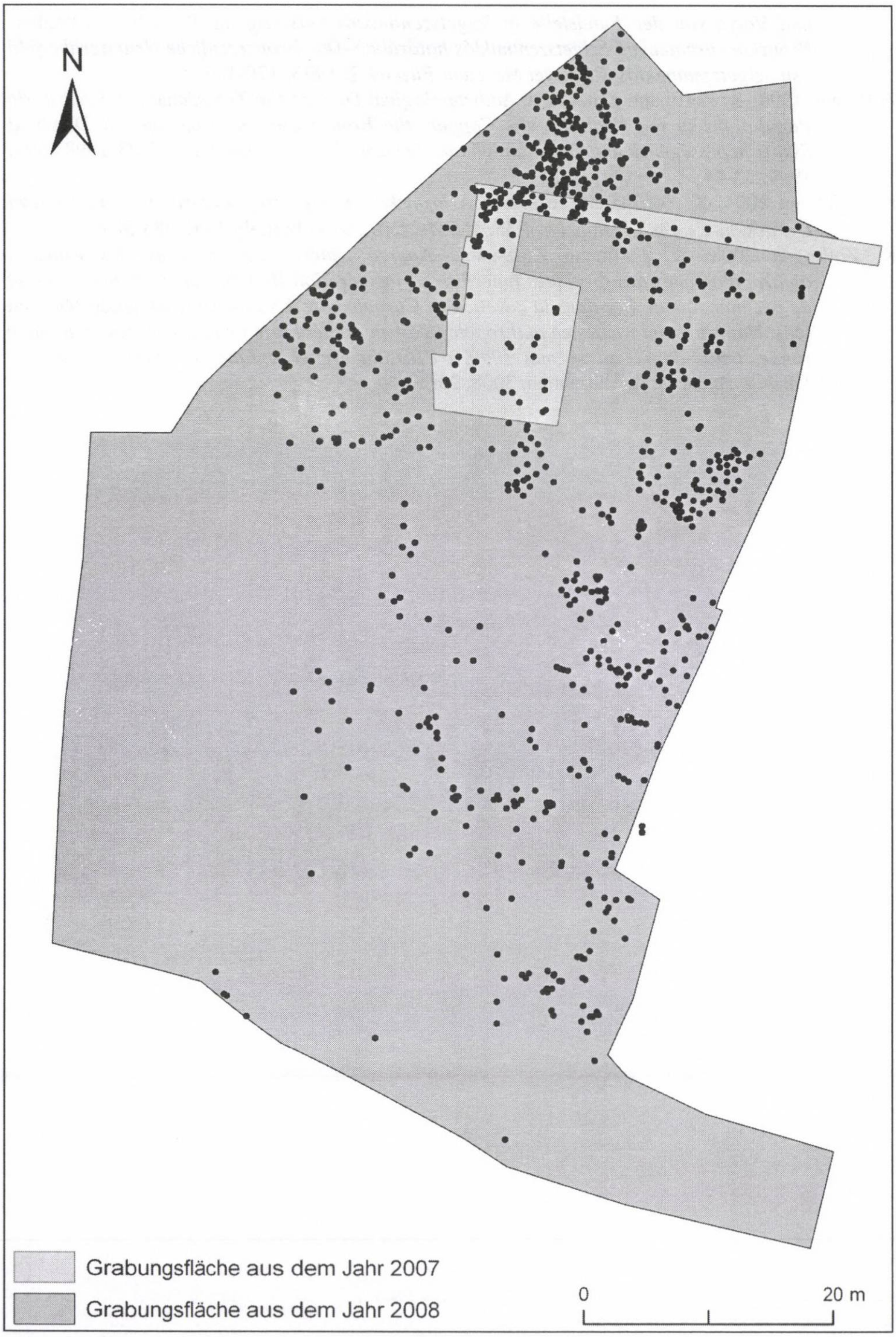

Abb. 1. Planum der Gräber auf der Grabungsfläche aus dem Jahr 2008.

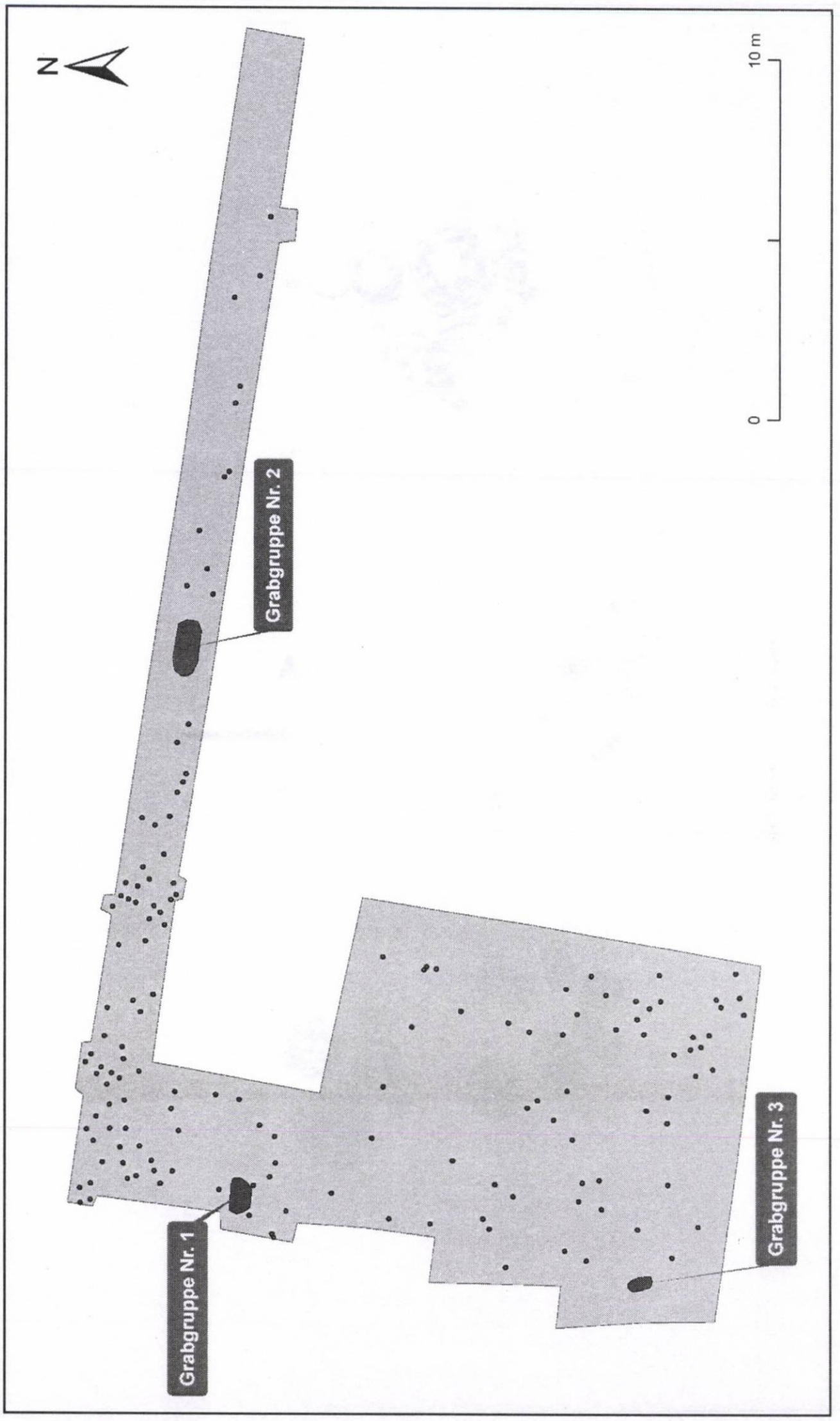

Abb. 2. Planum der Grabungsfläche aus dem Jahr 2007 mit den mehrfachen Urnenbestattungen.

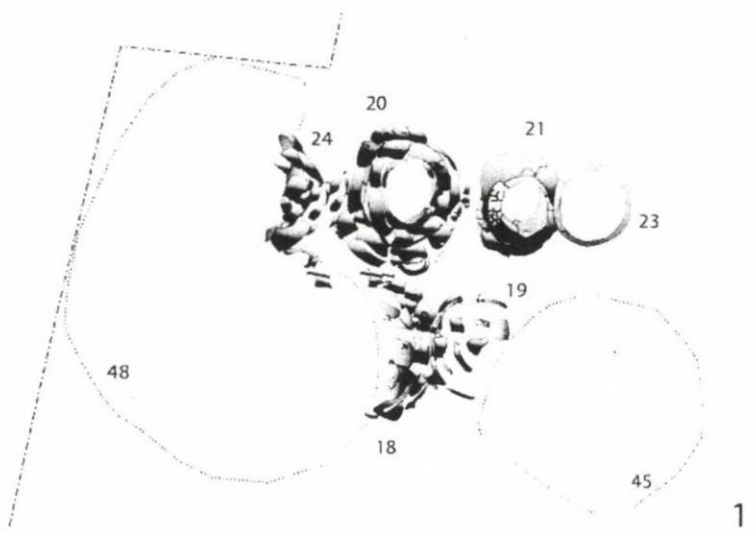

Abb. 3. Die mehrfachen Urnenbestattungen (Grabgruppen 1-3.)

Anthropologische Untersuchung der Knochenreste dreier Grabgruppen aus Zagyvapálfalva

Kitti Köhler

Einführung

In unserer Studie werden die anthropologischen Ergebnisse der Untersuchung der, in den großen Gräbern freigelegten kalzinierten menschlichen Knochenresten dargestellt. Die Information, die man durch die anthropologische Untersuchung der Skelettbestattungen gewinnen kann ist wesentlich zusammengesetzter, als die der Brandbestattungen. Deshalb ist es besonders erforderlich, dass bei der Sortierung und Analyse möglichst alle einzelne Kennzeichnen der Kalzinaten dokumentiert werden, die zur Beurteilung der Funde weitere Daten liefern können. Anhand der Qualität der Knochen–im Grunde genommen nach jenen Kriterien, die bei der Untersuchung der Skelette der Körperbestattungen verwendet werden–kann das Geschlecht und Sterbealter der einzelnen Personen bestimmt werden.[1] Von grundlegender Bedeutung ist die anatomische Sortierung der Knochenreste, nach der–im Optimalfall–festgestellt werden kann, ob sie zu einer oder zu mehreren Personen gehören, also ob es sich von einfachen oder mehrfachen Bestattungen handelt.[2] Im weiteren wurden die Mengen der Knochen, sowie Farbe, Fraktur, Risse und Fragmentierungsgrad bestimmt. Aus diesen Daten möchte hier auf die Qualität und auf die Art, die Temperatur und Dauer der Verbrennung gefolgert werden, sowie auf die Lage des Körpers auf dem Scheiterhaufen bzw. auf der Art des Aufsammelns der Knochen.[3]

Beschreibung der Funde

Grabgruppe 1.

Bf. 18: Maturus Mann (?) (40-59 Jahre) + Infant I. (2-3 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus mehr als 4000 Stück grauweißen, an manchen Stellen grauen Knochenfragmente. Unter den hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten Knochenresten findet man sowohl Schädel-, als auch postkraniale Knochen. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 1511,2 Gramm. Während der anatomischen Sortierung wurden zwei Individuen ausgesondert. Die Mehrheit der kalzinierten Knochen gehört zu einem erwachsenen Mann (40-59 Jahren). Unter den Schädelknochen wurden Nähte, Teil des Os occipitale, Bruchstück des Jochbeines, Teil der Maxilla und mehrere Zähne identifiziert. Fast alle postkraniale Knochen sind im Fund repräsentiert. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand der Dicke der Corticalis, der Größe der Capitulum mandibulae, der Gegliedertheit des Jochbeines und der Ausdrücklichkeit der Linea aspera bestimmt. Das Sterbealter wurde anhand der Verknöcherung der Schädelnähte festgestellt. Während der Sortierung der Knochen des Erwachsenen wurden Schädel- bzw. postkraniale Knochen eines Kindes gefunden. Unter den Knochen konnten die folgenden Fragmente identifiziert werden: Teile der Mandibula und der Maxilla, mehrere Zähne, Rippen bzw. Wirbelknochen, Kopf des Schenkelbeines und Epiphysen mehrerer Langknochen. Das Alter des Kindes (2-3 Jahren) wurde anhand des Entwicklungstandes der Zähne bestimmt.

Bf. 19: ?

Der Fund besteht aus 50-100 Stück hypermikro- und mikrofragmentierten, grauweißen und weißen Knochen, das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 2,2 Gramm. Unter den Knochen wurden ein Bruchstück des Schädels, bzw. zwei Rippenbruchstücke ausgesondert. Wegen der Fragmentierung konnte weder das Geschlecht noch das Alter bestimmt werden.

Bf. 20: Infant II. (10-14 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus 4000-4500 Stück hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, grauweißen, an manchen Stellen gelbbraunen oder braunen, kaum

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[1] Schour-Massler 1941, Nemeskéri-Harsányi-Acsádi 1960, Johnston 1961, Éry-Kralovánszky-Nemeskéri 1963.
[2] Nemeskéri-Harsányi 1968.
[3] Gejvall 1963, Ubelaker 1989, Ubelaker 2008.

deformierten Schädel bzw. postkranialen Knochen. Das Gesamtgewicht des Fundes beträgt 1008,3 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Teilen können Bruchstücke des Schädelgewölbes, Teile des Os occipitale und des Os frontale, bzw. der Maxilla sowie die kleinen und großen Backzähne erwähnt werden. Das Alter wurde anhand des Entwicklungstandes der Zähne bzw. der allgemeinen Größen der postkranialen Knochen bestimmt.

Bf. 21: Neugeborenes Kind (0-1 Jahre) (?)

Unter den ca 20-25 Stück hypermikrofragmentierten, kreideweißen Bruchstücken konnten weder Schädelknochen, noch Zähne oder Zahnkeime identifiziert werden. Das Alter wurde somit anhand der allgemeinen Größen bestimmt.

Bf. 24: Erwachsene Person (23-x Jahre) + Infant I. (1-7 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus 150-200 Stück, grauweißen und gelbweißen mikrofragmentierten Knochen. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt nur 55 Gramm. Während der anatomischen Sortierung wurden zwei Individuen, ein(e) Erwachsene(r) und ein Kind ausgesondert. Ihre Aussonderung geschah anhand der allgemeinen Maßen und der morphologischen Eigenschaften der Knochen. Unter den Bruchstücken konnten einige Schädelknochenteile, unter den postkranialen Knochen der Caput femoris, Diaphysis-Bruchstücke einiger Langknochen und ein Wirbelknochen identifiziert werden. Anhand dieser Knochenteile konnte weder das Alter noch das Geschlecht näher bestimmt werden. Zu dem Kind gehörten einige Fragmente des Schädelknochens, Teile des Beckenknochens und Rippen, sowie Diaphysis-Teile einiger Langknochen. Das Alter wurde anhand der allgemeinen metrischen Charakter der Knochen bestimmt.

Grabgruppe 2.

Bf. 25: Juvenis (15-23 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus ca. 2500-2800 Stück hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, grauweißen, an manchen Stellen grauen und schwarzen Fragmente. Es sind sowohl Schädelknochen als auch postkraniale Knochen vorhanden. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 502,5 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Fragmente sind Hirnschädelknochen, Teile der Maxilla- und Mandibula, einige Zähne vorhanden, sowie Fragmente von fast allen postkranialen Knochen. Das Sterbealter wurde anhand der Verknöcherung der Epiphysen der Langknochen bestimmt.

Bf. 39: Infant I. (3-4 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus ca. 500 Stück, vor allem hypermikro- und mikrofragmentierten, grauweißen, an mancher Stelle metallblauen Knochenfragmente. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 161,0 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Teile können Fragmente des Hirnschädelknochens, Teile der Maxilla, Zähne bzw. Zahnkeime, sowie einige Fragmente von Rippen, Tibia, Femur, Humerus erwähnt werden. Das Alter wurde anhand des Entwicklungstandes der Zähne bestimmt.

Bf. 40: Adultus Mann (23-39 Jahre) (?)

Der Fund besteht aus ca. 4500-4800 Stück, hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, grauweißen und grauen Fragmente. Das Gesamtgewicht der Schädel- bzw. postkranialen Knochen beträgt 1143,6 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Fragmente wurden Teile des Gehirngewölbes, Bruchstück eines Os occipitale, Randteile des Orbita pars petrosa, Teile der Maxilla und Mandibula, bzw. Zähne ausgesondert. Die postkranialen Knochenteile sind fast ohne Ausnahme repräsentiert. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand des Relief des Planum nuchale, die Ausgeprägtheit der Arci superciliaris und der Linea aspera bestimmt. Das Sterbealter wurde anhand der Geripptheit an der Oberfläche des Facies symphyseos ossis pubis des Beckenknochens, der Veränderung der inneren Struktur des Schenkelbeinkopfes, sowie auf Grund der Verknöcherung der Schädelnähte bestimmt.

Grabgruppe 3.

Bf. 105: Maturus Mann (40-59 Jahre) + Erwachsener Mann (?) (23-x Jahre) + Infans I.-II. (6-8 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus mehr als 9000 Stück, hypermikro-, mikro- und

mesofragmentierten, grauweißen und grauen Fragmente. Das Gesamtgewicht der Knochen beträgt satte 4047,8 Gramm. Während der anatomischen Sortierung wurden Knochenreste von drei Individuen ausgegliedert. Die Mehrheit der Knochen gehört zu einem Maturus Mann. Unter den Knochenresten dieses Individuums sind Nähte des Schädelknochens, Bruchstücke des Os occipitale, Os frontale und Os parietale, Reste von beidseitigen Pars petrosa, Teile des Facies malaris, die Maxilla und Mandibula, bzw. Zähne, sowie fast alle postkraniale Knochenteile präsent. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand der Dickheit der Kompakt-Bestand der Schädelknochen, die Reliefs der Muskelinsertion am Os occipitale, die Ausgeprägtheit der Protuberantia occipitalis externa, die Gegliedertheit des Facies malaris, sowie die Ausgeprägtheit der Linea aspera des Schenkelbeines bestimmt. Das Sterbealter wurde anhand der Fortgeschrittenheit der Verknöcherung der Schädelnähte, sowie die Geripptheit an der Oberfläche des Facies symphyseos ossis pubis des Beckenknochens bestimmt. Die Ausgliederung des zweiten erwachsenen Individuums wurde durch das unterschiedliche Dickheit der Schädelknochen, sowie das Vorhandensein der beidseitigen Pars petrosa ermöglicht. Die Aussonderung aller Teile der Schädelknochen und der postkranialen Knochen der beiden Individuen war nicht systematisch durchführbar. Im Falle des Kindes wurden Schädelknochen, Zähne, sowie die Dystalis- und Epiphysis-Teile der Langknochen, Wirbel, Fragmente des Beckenknochens, sowie die Kniescheiben identifiziert. Auch beidseitige Pars petrosa war vorhanden. Das Sterbealter (6-8 Jahren) des Kindes wurde anhand der Entwicklung der Zähne festgestellt.

Bf. 108: Individuum von 15-18 Jahren

Aus der Urne wurden ungefähr 3000 Stück, hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierte, grauweiße Schädelknochen und postkraniale Knochen eingesammelt. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 1002,3 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Fragmente können Nähtenreste des Schädelknochens, Teile des Os frontale und Os occipitale, Fragmente der beidseitigen Pars petrosa, der Maxilla und Mandibula, Zähne, sowie Teile von fast allen postkranialen Knochen erwähnt werden. Das Sterbealter wurde anhand der Verknöcherung der Epiphysis-Teile der Langknochen bestimmt.

Bf. 115: Erwachsene Frau (?) (23-x Jahre) + ?

Der Fund besteht aus mehr als 3000 Stück, hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, weißen und gelbweißen Fragmente, deren Gesamtgewicht 987,6 Gramm betrug. Während der anatomischen Sortierung der Knochen wurden zwei Individuen ausgesondert. Dies wurde durch zwei rechtseitige Bruchstücke des Mandibulakopfes und durch die metrischen Unterschiede der Wirbelknochen ermöglicht.

Bei dem einen Individuum (wahrscheinlich Frau) wurden Schädelknochen, Fragmente der Mandibula und des Facies malaris, sowie Teile von fast allen postkranialen Knochen identifiziert. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand der Corticalis-Bestandes der Schädelknochen, der Größe des Mandibulakopfes, der mäßigen Ausgeprägtheit der Linea aspera auf der Femur, sowie anhand des Durchmessers des Caput Femoris bestimmt. Über das Alter - aufgrund des Mangels an altersbestimmenden Fragmente–kann nur soviel festgestellt werden, dass sie zu einer erwachsenen Person gehörten. Zu der anderen Person konnten nur wenige Fragmente zugerechnet werden (Caput mandibulae, Wirbelknochen, Diaphysis der Langknochen), die aber weder zur Bestimmung des Alters, noch des Geschlechtes ausreichend waren.

Bef. 124: Maturus Frau (40-59 Jahre) + Infant I. (1-7 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus ca. 5000-6000 Stück hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, grauen und grauweißen Fragmente, die zu zwei Individuen gehören. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 1804,7 Gramm. Die Mehrheit der Knochen gehört zu einer erwachsenen Frau. Die identifizierbaren Fragmente bestehen aus Teile des Schädelgewölbes, der Maxilla, der Mandibula und des Os occipitale, Randbruchstück der Orbita, sowie Zähne. Teile der postkranialen Knochen sind fast ohne Ausnahme präsent. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand der Grazilität der Knochen, sowie anhand des morphologischen Charakters in der

Margo supraorbitalis und occipitalis Region bestimmt. Das Alter wurde anhand der Verknöcherung der Schädelnähte festgestellt. Während der anatomischen Sortierung der Knochen wurden Knochenfragmente (einige Schädelbruchstücke, Zähne, Rippen, und Diaphysis-Teile von Langknochen) eines Kindes ausgesondert. Das Alter des Kindes wurde anhand der allgemeinen Größen der Knochen, sowie Entwicklungsstand der Zähne bestimmt.

Bf. 125: Infant I. (ca. 3 Jahre)

Aus der Urne sind ca. 500-600 Stück, hypermikro- und mikrofragmentierte, grauweiße Fragmente ans Tageslicht gekommen. Das Gesamtgewicht der Schädelknochen und postkranialen Knochen beträgt 319,9 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Knochenreste sind Fragmente des Gehirnschädels, der Mandibula, einige Zähne, Diaphysis-Teile der Langknochen, Wirbelknochen und Rippen. Das Alter wurde anhand der Zähne durchgeführt.

Bf. 128: Infant I. (2,5-3,5 Jahre)

Unter den mehr als 1000 Stück bestehenden, hypermikro- und mikrofragmentierten, grauweißen Fragmente konnten sowohl Schädelknochen als auch postkraniale Knochen ausgesondert werden (Bruchstück des Gehirnschädelknochens, Zähne, Diaphysis-Teile von Langknochen, Rippen, Wirbelknochen und Fingerglieder). Das Sterbealter wurde anhand des Entwicklungstandes der Zähne festgestellt.

Bf. 129: Adultus-Maturus Mann (30-60 Jahre)

Der Fund besteht aus ca. 2000-2500 Stück, hypermikro-, mikro- und mesofragmentierten, grauweißen Fragmente von Schädelknochen und postkranialen Knochen. Das Gesamtgewicht beträgt 1638,5 Gramm. Unter den identifizierbaren Knochen sind Schädelnähte, Fragmente des Os occipitale, des Os temporale der Mandibula, Zähne, sowie Bruchstücken von fast allen postkranialen Knochen. Das Geschlecht wurde anhand der morphologischen und metrischen Beschaffenheit der Mandibula, der Oberfläche des Os occipitale, sowie anhand der Ausgeprägtheit der Linea aspea auf dem Schenkelknochen bestimmt. Das Alter konnte anhand der Schädelnähte nur in einem sehr breiten Intervall bestimmt werden.

Die Auswertung der Ergebnisse

In den drei, in Zagyvapálfalva ans Tageslicht gekommenen Grabgruppen wurden insgesamt 15 Bestattungen freigelegt. Während der anthropologischen Untersuchung fanden wir in 10 Fällen jeweils Knochenreste eines einzigen Individuums, in 4 Fällen 4, und in einem Fall insgesamt 3 Personen in einer einzigen Urne.

Die demographische Ergebnisse zeigen dass–wie in den anderen Gräbern des Gräberfeldes–der Zahl der Kinder sehr hoch ist. In den 15 Urnen wurden insgesamt 21 Personen identifiziert, davon sind 9 Kinder, 2 Jugendliche, 5 Männer, 2 Frauen und zwei weitere Erwachsene Personen, deren Geschlecht nicht konnte bestimmt werden.

In den 5, Knochenreste mehrerer Individuen beinhaltenden Urnen fanden wir in 4 Fällen neben den Erwachsenen Fragmente die auf Kleinkinder (Infant I.) hindeuteten.

Die Aussonderung der Kinder erfolgte anhand der unterschiedlichen metrischen Beschaffenheit der Knochen, sowie der Zähne. In manchen Fällen waren das parallele Vorkommen einiger charakteristischen und leicht identifizierbaren anatomischen Formel (z.B. der Pars petrosa oder Kopf des Unterkiefers) für die Aussonderung der einzelnen Individuen vom großen Nutzen.

Es ist bemerkenswert, dass unter den 5 mehrfachen Bestattungen das Geschlecht der Erwachsenen dreimal als männlich und nur in zwei Fällen als weiblich bestimmt wurde. Laut zahlreichen früheren archäologischen und anthropologischen Beobachtungen bestehen die Doppelbestattungen eingeäscherten Gräbern meistens aus einer erwachsenen Frau und ein Kleinkind (Neugeborene oder sogar Fötus). Unserer Meinung nach kann eine familiäre Beziehung zwischen den so bestatteten Personen zwar nicht ausgeschlossen werden (Mutter/Vater und Kind?), doch kann diese mit den Untersuchungsmethoden der traditionalen Anthropologie nicht bestätigt werden.

Während der Sortierung der Knochen nach anatomischen Gegebenheiten wurden

fast bei allen Bestattungen Schädel sowie postkraniale Knochen ausgesondert. Unter den Schädelknochen konnten sowohl Hirnschädelbruchstücke, als auch die, dem Schaden des Feuers mehr ausgesetzten Gesichtsknochen, sowie die widerstandsfähigeren Zähnen anzutreffen. Im Falle der postkranialen Knochen konnten sowohl Langknochen als auch etliche, zum Körper gehörende Knochen (Wirbelknochen, Rippen, Beckenknochen, Schulterblatt, Finger) identifiziert werden. Demnach ist es anzunehmen, dass nach dem Verbrennen des Toten die Knochenreste systematisch eingesammelt und in die Urnen gelegt wurden.

Bei der Herausgliederung der einzelnen Personen in den mehrfachen Bestattungen kamen wir zum Einsicht, dass es kein Zufall ist und nicht durch spätere Eingriffe (Störung) Knochenreste mehrerer Individuen in der selben Urne ans Tageslicht kamen. Im Falle der Kinder in den Doppelbestattungen kann nicht nur von einzelnen, sporadischen Knochensplitter gesprochen werden, sondern wurden sowohl Schädelbruchstücke als auch postkraniale Knochen in größerer Menge identifiziert. Demnach ist es auszuschließen, dass diese Bruchstücke beim Aufsammeln der Knochen einer, früher verbrannten Person vom Scheiterhaufen untermischt wurden.

Die Menge der, aus den Urnen freigelegten kalzinierten menschlichen Knochenreste variieren sehr stark. In manchen Fällen sind mehrere Tausend Bruchstücke ans Tageslicht gekommen, es sind aber auch Funde aus nur ein paar Hundert Bruchstücken bestehend bekannt. Auch das Gewicht der Funde zeigt große Unterschiede: variiert auf einer Skala von 2,2 bis 4047,8 Gramm. Der Durchschnittswert des Knochengewichtes einer einzigen Person beträgt 709,1 Gramm. Das Gewicht der erwachsenen kalzinierten Knochen und der mehrfachen Bestattungen kann auch anderthalb oder sogar 2 Kilogramm erreichen (bei drei Individuen liegt das Gewicht über 4 Kilogramm). Bei den Kindern ist dieser Wert wesentlich geringer. Über die Bewertung der Gewichtsdaten teilen sich die Meinungen. Einige Forscher haben die Ansicht, dass das Gewicht der Kalzinaten nicht nur für die Bestimmung des Verbrennungsgrades ausschlaggebend ist, sondern dient auch zur Bestimmung des Geschlechtes und des Alters und zur Aussonderung mehrerer Individuen. Andere dagegen akzeptieren die Erstellung einer demographischen Analyse anhand des Gewichtes nicht.[4] Das Gewicht und Menge der von uns untersuchte Knochenreste ist bedeutend, vor allem wenn wir in Betracht ziehen, dass unter modernen krematorischen Verhältnissen mit der Verbrennung eines erwachsenen Person im Durchschnitt ca. 1-4 Kilogramm Asche hinterbleibt, die natürlich von dem Körpergewicht und Körperbau, Alter und Geschlecht der Person, sowie von der Robustizität der Knochen usw. abhängt.[5] Bei den archäologischen Funden kann das Gewicht auch von anderen Faktoren beeinflusst gewesen sein. Es ist nicht immer nachvollziehbar, ob nach der Verbrennung des Toten alle Knochenreste aufgesammelt wurden.[6]

Aus der Sicht der Bewertung hängt die Frage der Größe und Zerstückeltheit der Knochen eng zusammen. Die Größe der Kalzinaten wird durch die Temperatur der Brennung, durch die Bewegung des Körpers auf dem Scheiterhaufen, sowie durch das Aufsammeln und Beerdigung der Knochen nach der Verbrennung beeinflusst. Nach Wahl (1982) ist auch das absichtliche Zerbrechen der Knochen nicht ausschliessbar. Die bewusste Zerstückelung der Knochen um in die Urnen (oder andere Gefäße) reinpassen zu können ist nicht nachweisbar. Viel mehr nachvollziehbar ist aber Vorstellung einer natürlichen Zerkleinerung der Knochen entlang der Rissen an den Kalzinaten, als sie in die Urnen gelegt wurden.[7] Bei alledem übet auch die spätere Behandlung der Knochen (Freilegung, Waschen) auf die Größe der Kalzinaten eine wichtige Rolle aus. Die Fragmentierung der Knochen aus Zagyvapálfalva wurden anhand 5 verschiedenen Größenkategorien untersucht: hypermikro- (unter 0,5 cm), mikro- (zwischen 0,5-1,0 cm), meso- (zwischen 1-5 cm), makro- (zwischen 5-7 cm), hypermakrofragmentierte

[4] Chochol 1961, Nemeskéri-Harsányi 1968, Ubelaker 2008.
[5] McKinley 1993, Warren-Maples 1997, Ubelaker 2008.
[6] Nemeskéri-Harsányi 1968.
[7] McKinley 1994, 2000.

(über 7 cm) Bruchstücke.[8] Bei den Erwachsenen dominieren die mikro- und mesofragmentierte, bei den Kindern eher die hypermikro- und mikrofragmentierte Bruchstücke.

Über das Problem der Farbe der Knochen und diese beeinflussenden Faktoren haben sich mehrere Forscher auseinandergesetzt. Die Farbe wird durch die Temperatur, Intensität und Dauer, Sauerstoffzufuhr während der Verbrennung, durch die Zusammensetzung der, mit auf dem Scheiterhaufen verbrannten Gegenständen, sowie durch die chemische Zusammensetzung des Bodens usw. beeinflusst.[9] Im untersuchten Material von Zagyvapálfalva dominieren die grauweiße, graue und gelbgraue Farben, die nicht gleichzusetzen sind mit der, durch eine lange und intensive Verbrennung mit hohen Temperaturen (über 800-1000°C) hervorgerufene kreideweiße Tönung. In unserem Fall kann mit einer geringen bis mäßigen Temperatur und weniger intensiven Einäscherung gerechnet werden. Die Farbe der Knochen war auch bei einer einzigen Person unterschiedlich: die zentrale Knochenteile des Postkraniums (Wirbelknochen, Beckenknochen) besaßen eine sandgelbe-metallblaue/schwarze Farbe. Diese Tatsache läßt darauf hindeuten, das Teile des Körpers auf dem Scheiterhaufen nicht der selben Intensität ausgesetzt waren. Nicht desto trotzt müssen auch der anatomischen Verteilung und der funktionalen Rolle entsprechenden strukturellen- und Größenunterschiede in Betracht gezogen werden. Bedeutende Unterschiede zeigen bei der Verbrennung die aus homogenem Knochensubstanz bestehenden Langknochen (vor allem ihre mittlere Partie) oder Schädelknochen zu den aus dünnen Knochenplättchen und Bälkchen bestehenden, eine schwammartige Struktur aufweisenden Wirbelknochen.

Bei der Bearbeitung der Funde wurden auch die Fraktur, Spaltung, Rissigkeit der Knochen in Betracht gezogen, da sie mit wesentlichen Informationen beitragen können. Falls die Verbrennung unmittelbar nach dem Tod erfolgte, erscheinen auf den Knochen gebogene, transversale Risse und unregelmäßige längliche Spaltlinien, sowie vor allem auf den Langknochen ist eine starke Krümmung und Deformation zu beobachten. Vergeht eine längere Zeit zwischen dem Tod und der Verbrennung, entstehen longitudinale Frakturen und sind nur oberflächliche Risse zu sehen, die Knochen sind kaum deformiert.[10]

An den Knochenbruchstücken aus Zagyvapálfalva erscheinen hauptsächlich parallel gebogene transversale Spaltlinien, die darauf hinweisen, dass zwischen dem Tod und der Verbrennung nur eine kurze Zeit verging.

Zusammenfassung

Zusammenfassend kann festgestellt werden, dass in den 3 untersuchten Grabgruppen der Zahl der Kinder, insbesondere der Infant I. sehr hoch ist. Dies zeigt dass die Kleinkinder (und Neugeborenen) einer Gemeinschaft unter den gleichen Umständen wahrscheinlich mit den selben Ritualen im gleichen Gräberfeld beigesetzt wurden.

Auf dem Fundplatz beobachtete mehrfache Bestattungen (mehrere Tote in einer Urne, bzw. in einem Grab) werfen Fragen auf, die mit anthropologischen Untersuchungsmethoden nicht beantwortet werden können. Im Falle eines fast gleichzeitigen Todes und gleichzeitiger Verbrennung/Bestattung mehrerer Personen taucht der Gedanke eines engen Verhältnisses zwischen den Bestatteten auf (Mitglieder der selben Familie?). Bei der Interpretation der mehrfachen Bestattungen werden meistens auch ansteckende Krankheiten (Epidemie) oder kriegerische Tätigkeiten in Betracht gezogen, die den gleichzeitigen Tod mehrerer Personen hätten herbeigeführt können. Bei einer solchen Interpretationsmöglichkeit ist die Belegung des familiären Verhältnisses zwischen den Toten äußerst schwer. Da genetische Analyse an den verbrannten Knochen nicht durchführbar ist, kann eine eventuelle familiäre Beziehung nicht bestätigt werden. Auch die Bestimmung von Krankheiten an den Knochen ist begrenzt, vor allem gilt dies für ansteckende Krankheiten, deren Feststellung auch bei den Skelettbefunden von Körperbestattungen ziemlich unsicher ist. (Nicht jede

[8] Chochol 1961.
[9] Shipman et al 1984, Walker-Miller 2005, Ubelaker 2008.
[10] Baby 1954, Binford 1963.

epidemische Krankheit verursacht Veränderungen an den Knochen, und in manchen Fällen ist der Ablauf der Krankheit so rasch, dass sie keine sichtbaren osteologischen Symptome hervorruft.)

Die Menge der Kalzinaten, die mikro- und mesofragmentiertheit der Knochen, die Tönung der Fragmente lassen auf eine weniger intensiven Verbrennung hindeuten, die unter niedriger bis mäßiger Temperatur durchgeführt wurde. Während der anatomischen Sortierung der Knochen wurden bei jedem Individuum Schädel- bzw. postkraniale Knochen ausgesondert. Diese Tatsache deutet darauf hin, dass bei der Durchführung etlicher Totenrituale nach der Verbrennung das systematische Aufsammeln der Knochenreste bestrebt war.

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The Late Bronze Age settlement at Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului* (County of Alba)

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The more assiduous effort carried out in recent decades to knowing the Bronze Age within the Carpathian Basin, has concluded on one hand with more information about some independent archaeological cultures and, on the other hand, it has brought fresh information to specialists about new cultural manifestations, yet insufficiently defined. In these circumstances, the end of the Bronze Age (Bz D-Ha A), mostly referring to the central and the south-western Transylvania, is a temporal sequence under the process of "reconstruction", including cultures like Noua, a classical "culture" of this area until recently.

The excavations in the last one and a half decade and the incomplete publication of their results, besides the presentation of some old research materials have filled some incomplete fields especially in what concerns the Ha A period and the defining of some cultural groups specific of the central and western Transylvania[1].

Through these short considerations, we find profitable to put some materials into the scientific circuit, although at this stage they apparently lead to the elucidation of some cultural phenomena from the end of the Middle Bronze Age, but they also stay open to prospect research which shall establish their place in space and time and especially their cultural awareness. It is very important that in this context we shall present the materials dating from the Late Bronze Age that were found in a "key" site, like the one at Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului*. It has been published illo tempore, selectively and will make clear the so-called Late Noua facies after several decades, or *Noua-Teiuş*, as K. Horedt called it when he referred to the discoveries made at Teiuş and Sebeş, which could have shown a tendency to "hallstattisation" of the Noua culture.

The settlement that spread on the left bank of the Secaş river, east of Sebeş town (Fig. 1A-1B) was investigated first through sondage (three control sections) made under the direction of K. Horedt, in 1960, and then through systematic research (nine sections) carried out by Al. Aldea between 1966-1967 (Fig. 2). The Late Bronze Age material has been only partially processed, the only references were made to the finds of the Noua culture[2].

A pit from *Podul Pripocului* which was published four decades ago had a specific inventory of thas period. Only a few pottery fragments with fluting have been presented there, among which there was one that belonged to a vessel with bi-conical shape and fluting decoration above the shoulder, a fragment of a bag-shaped vessel fit with a handle-knob beneath the rim, a fragment decorated with barbotine and a bronze needle with profiled head. K. Horedt has dated the feature *"likely in the Late Bronze Age (Ha A-B)"* and has stated that both pottery and the metal piece *"don't fit the usual features of the Late Bronze Age"*[3]. The author has anticipated well the dating of the pit in the Late Bronze Age and has indirectly observed their different character from the Noua discoveries, the only one known at that time as representative for that period. The bronze needle with profiled head (*Nadel mit profiliertem Kopf)* is very interesting, but Horedt hasn't found similarities at that time.

The feature (which we shall call *Feature A*[4]) was researched by K. Horedt in section B/1960 and was opened right on the left bank of the Secaş river. The materials found in it could be found in the Museum of Sebeş, except the bronze needle and the vessel fragment fit with a clay knob[5]. The pottery group was homogeneous and belonged to the Bronze Age:

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[1] See Ciugudean 1994 a; Ciugudean 1994 b.

[2] Andriţoiu 1986, p. 22, fig. 2/1-2, 4, 6-7, 9-12; 4/6-8, 10; 5/1-12; Florescu 1991, p. 117, fig. 13; 98/1; 140/6; 149/1; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 62 sqq., 124, pl. 52/1-2, 4, 6-7, 9-12; 53/6-8, 10; 55/3-12; 56.

[3] Horedt et. al. 1967, p. 25, fig. 9/1-4.

[4] K. Horedt hasn't numbered the feature.

[5] It has been identified by comparing the pottery that was published with the one preserved in that museum. It has been easy for us to recognize the materials after the ink marks on pottery: Podul Pripocului 1960 cassette, which came to stand for their assigning to a feature that required the opening of a cassette.

1. Fragments of bi-conical vessel with the shoulder separated from the neck through shallow sill. The shoulder preserves several shallow fluting, probably arranged in arches. It was also illustrated by K. Horedt[6] (inside/outside: grey slip, smooth surface; sand; fine) (pl. 1/6).

2. Fragmentary bi-conical vessel. The base of the neck is decorated by a range of smooth, horizontal fluting, under which, on the shoulder are wide fluting, obliquely arranged like a "turban" (inside: grey; outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine) (pl. 1/7).

3. Fragment from the upper part of a bi-conical vessel, which preserves only the obliquely, slightly outcurving rim and part of the neck that grows narrower towards the mouth. The outer surface and the inside lip are strongly polished with graphite in several directions (Inside/outside: grey; sand; fine) (pl. 1/8).

4. Fragment of conical bowl (inside: light brown, polished surface; outside: grey, smooth surface; sand and pebbles; coarse) (pl. 2/3).

5. Lip fragment of a bag-vessel decorated by a socketed belt beneath the rim (inside: brick-red, outside: brown; sand and pebbles; coarse) (pl. 2/3).

6. Fragment of the lip from a bag-vessel with internally bevelled rim, under which is a plain belt and one knob (inside/outside: light brown; sand and pebbles; coarse) (pl. 2/5).

7. Fragment of a vessel lip with thickened and slightly widened rim (inside/outside: brick-red–grey; sand and much mica; rough to the touch; coarse) (pl. 2/4).

8. Fragment of a vessel lip with thickened rim (inside/outside: light brown slip; sand and pebbles; semi-fine) (pl. 1/3).

9. Fragment of a conical tureen, with internally bevelled lip (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand and pebble; fine) (pl. 2/2).

10. Fragment of a small-sized, bi-conical vessel, decorated on the inside with narrow, fine fluting, arranged obliquely (inside/outside: light brown, polished surface; sand; fine) (pl. 1/1).

11. Vessel base (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine) (pl. 2/6).

12. Base of a small-sized vessel. The outside surface is polished with graphite (inside/outside: grey; sand; fine) (pl. 1/2)

13. Fragments of the inferior part of a large-sized vessel, which preserves a part of the base; the walls are decorated with vertically applied barbotine[7]. The surface between the vertical stripes of the barbotine is smooth (inside: light-brown, polished slip; outside: light-brown with spots from a secondary firing; sand, pebbles and crushed shards; semi-fine) (pl. 2/9).

14. Fragment from the inferior part of a large-sized vessel, decorated by vertically applied barbotine. The surface between the vertical stripes of the barbotine is smooth (inside: light-brown, polished slip; outside: light-brown; sand, pebbles and crushed shards; semi-fine) (pl. 2/8).

15. Fragment of a vessel lip with outcurving rim. The inside surface is strongly polished, and the outside is scaled. The firing and the characteristics are specific of the Gáva pottery (inside: light-brown and black towards the margins of the rim; sand, pebbles and crushed shards; fine) (pl. 1/4).

The forms and the decorative elements that were found in *Feature A* at Sebeş were distinct from the Noua type, as it lacked every specific part of that culture. Pottery, in general, indicates a stage forward in cultural development. The analogies for the vessel with bi-conical body, decorated by fluting above the shoulder, have been relative[8]. But, the fragment with fluting arranged in "turban" style, flanked at the upper side by narrow fluting, has analogies in the Igriţa[9] group, in the hoard from Cornuţel (Bz. D-Ha A_1)[10], in the tumulus at Susani[11], as well as in the vessel which deposited the bronze objects from Fizeş[12], or in the necropolis at

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[6] Horedt et. al. 1967, fig. 9/1.

[7] One of the fragments has been illustrated by K. Horedt, too (Horedt et. al. 1967, p. 25, fig. 9/4).

[8] Likely analogies in the tumulus at Susani (Stratan, Vulpe 1977, Abb. 6; Taf. 6/9; 19/150; Gumă 1993, pl. XIX/12) and in a discovery made at Ilişua (Bistriţa-Năsăud County) (Protase şi colab. 1997, pl. XXIV/5).

[9] Emödi 1980, p. 255, fig. 15/109 (vessel polished with graphite); p. 256, fig. 22/189 (vessel polished with graphite).

[10] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, p. 55, pl. 35/1; Gumă 1993, p. 252, pl. XIII/12.

[11] Stratan, Vulpe 1977, pl. 6/96; 16/148; 17/138, 141; 18/142, 144; Gumă 1993, pl. XVIII/10.

[12] Gumă 1993, pl. XXII/1.

Ticvaniul Mare[13] (Ha A_1-Ha A_2). Regarding the knob surrounded by cutting lines (pl. 2/1), we had an analogy to it at Deva-*Viile Noi*, in the "Igrita" environment, on coarse paste[14]. For the moment, we emphasize only the graphite polish on the outside of the vessels and the use of the barbotine, and further on we shall resume their analysis in detailed perspective besides other similar finds in Transylvania.

A chronological evidence is also offered by the bronze needle with thickened head (pl. 2/7). The object is a rarity in Transylvania, but as long as it is not identified[15], it can't be compared to the published drawing and we can't find proper analogies. Still, the needle is almost identical to another that was found at Muhi-Princ, in the Pilinyi culture, dated in the Bz. D[16], but given the wide spreading of this category of artefacts, its dating can't be limited to a shorter chronological period of time.

It is important that the pottery fragment at pl. 1/4 of this feature was worked in the very Gáva manner. Its unexpected presence actually establishes the moment when the pit was filled, sometime at the end of the Late Bronze Age III (Gogâltan)/Reinecke Ha A_2.

Another feature of the Late Bronze Age, different from the one previously mentioned, which we called *Feature B*, can be restored from the excavations carried out by K. Horedt. We don't know reasons why this is not mentioned in the research report of the site from Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului*. The Museum of Sebeş preserves a particular lot of materials marked with ink as follows: "*Sebeş-Podul Pripocului the last section 1960*". The last section presented by Horedt (section C) doesn't mention any feature[17], thus it can be accepted that "the last section" could be a sondage that hasn't been mentioned in the study. We noticed the homogeneous character of this lot and that the inscription is to be found *exclusively* on these materials. We refer here to the bi-conical, multi-staged vessel and fragments of other three vessels that could originate only in one feature, judging by the preserved fragments.

1. Bi-conical vessel with multi-staged body, with bulging neck at the outside, wide, everted rim, the shoulder is prominent and has a sill above it; the shoulder is fit with knobs. The surface of the vessel is smoothed and polished on both sides (inside/outside: grey; sand and pebbles; fine) (pl. 3/1).

2. Fragment of a bi-conical vessel of which is preserved a part from the lower side. There is a decoration coming down from the shoulder, made of wide, vertical fluting arranged at considerable distances. The surface is strongly polished on both sides (inside: grey; outside: black; sand and pebbles; fine) (pl. 3/4).

3. Fragment of a bi-conical vessel which preserves a part of the shoulder and of the lower side. The shoulder is fit with spaced fluting, obliquely arranged. The surface was strongly polished on both sides (inside/outside: grey; sand; fine) (pl. 3/3).

4. Fragment from the base of a vessel which was worked carelessly; grey-coloured (pl. 3/2).

Distinguishable within the feature is the bi-conical, multi-staged, large-sized vessel, likely to be wholly restored (pl. 3/1). Its shape is specific of the Igriţa cultural group and is to be found in Izbândiş Cave[18], at Oradea[19] and Biharea[20]. Many vessels with similar aspect, some lacking decoration and being fit with knobs on their maximum diameter originate from Igriţa Cave[21]. A deposition from the Mişidului Cave (County of Bihor) uncovered a bi-conical vessel from the category of the so-called multi-staged urns, grey-coloured, lacking

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[13] Gumă 1993, pl. XXV/2.
[14] Andriţoiu 1969, p. 38, fig. 3.
[15] The piece wasn't found in the collections of the Sebeş Museum, where it should have been preserved. It is likely to be found in the museum from Cluj.
[16] Kemenczei 1965, kép. 6/12; Kemenczei 1984, p. 21, Taf. XXXVIII/14.
[17] Horedt et. al. 1967, p. 25, fig. 8/C.
[18] Chidioşan, Emödi 1983, p. 17, 21, fig. 2/1, 5; 4/4.
[19] Emödi 1979, p. 739, 742, fig. 1/7.
[20] Dumitraşcu 1994, p. 102, pl. XLVI/1, the author notices here that „the paste and the firing remind of Gáva pottery (?)".
[21] Emödi 1980, p. 257 sq., fig. 5/1, 7; 10/53; 11/77; 12/80, 84; 13/89; 15/101, 113; 18/145-146; 19/151-152; 21/180; 22/182; 23/193-194; 26/229-230; Chidioşan, Emödi 1982, p. 63, 65, fig. 2/2-3.

decoration, of smaller size[22] than the one from Sebeş. Based on metal objects, and especially on the presence of the bronze belt with rich decorations[23] in the deposition, the discovery could be most probably dated in the Ha A_1, the period when those belts were famous in the hoards of the Carpathian Basin[24]. The lack in decoration on the multi-staged urn from Sebeş also appears in the case of the multi-staged vessel fragment from the hoard of Cioclovina[25] or in the case of the vessel from the settlement layer at Uioara de Jos-*Grui*, dated in the Ha A period[26]. A decorated urn of this type appeared at Susani-*Grămurada lui Ticu*[27]. In the northern Carpathian Basin, a similar settlement to the one at Sebeş is shifted to the early stage[28] of the Gáva collection. The two ceramic fragments with fluted shoulders (pl. 3/3-4) lack clear analogies in the groups of the Late Bronze Age (Igriţa, Susani).

As I. Al. Aldea resumed the excavations in 1966, an important surface of the site at Sebeş was excavated and divided into nine sections. Some of the materials that were preserved in the same museum were marked with *L 2* (S VII/1967), but that hallmark was present as well on materials from a neolithic dwelling. Here is their description:

1. Fragment of a calotiform tureen, with horizontal fluting under the lip (inside/outside: light brown, with polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VII/1967; *L 2*) (pl. 11/5);

2. Pottery fragment from the neck of a vessel which is decorated with wide fluting (inside: light brown; outside: light brown, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VII/1967; *L 2*) (pl. 11/1);

3. Fragment from the lip of a vessel with outcurved margin (inside/outside: brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S VII/1967; *L 2*) (pl. 10/2);

4. Pottery fragment from the shoulder of a vessel decorated with oblique fluting (garland-like?) (Inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VII71967; *L 2*) (pl. 11/2);

5. Everted rim of a vessel (inside: light-brown, with polished surface; outside: black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VII/1967; L 2) (pl. 11/3).

The cultural layer of the settlement uncovered many other pottery materials of the Late Bronze Age. The ones of the Noua type have been published. The specific materials of the Noua culture are represented by *kantharos* vessels:

1. *Kantharos* vessel with handles ending in conical buttons; the area between shoulder and neck is fit with a shallow sill (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VI/1967; □ 1-3)[29] (pl. 8/1);

2. Fragment of *kantharos* vessel with handles ending in plain bosses; the area between the shoulder and neck is fit with a shallow sill. The shoulder has incised decoration consisting of narrow, horizontal fluting, and beneath it has a decoration, likely rafted, using the same technique (inside/outside: grey slip, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VI/1967; □ 6-9; ▼ 0,30-0,50) (pl. 9/5);

3. *Kantharos* handle ended in plain boss (inside/outside: black slip, polished surface; sand; fine; S I/1966; □ 17; ▼ 0,40[30] (pl. 9/4);

4. *Kantharos* handle with crested handle (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S II/1966; ▼ 1,15-1,55) (pl. 6/13);

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[22] Chidioşan-Emödi 1981, p. 163, 166, fig. 4/1-1 a. The authors of the article think this vessel illustrates the transition to „Hallstatt"; Emődi 1995, p. 10, fig. 2.

[23] Chidioşan, Emödi 1982, p. 80; Emődi 1995, p. 10, 12, fig. 3. There is also a fragment of decorated belt originating from Igriţa Cave (Emödi 1980, p. 254, 263, fig. 9/46).

[24] See the debate at Rusu, Chiţu 1982, p. 35; Vasiliev 2004, p. 136.

[25] Emödi 1978, p. 484, 492, 494, fig. 4/3, the author assigns the vessel to a cenotaph.

[26] Ciugudean 1994 a, p. 27, fig. 4/6; Ciugudean 1994 b, p. 71, fig. 4/6.

[27] Stratan, Vulpe 1977, p. 51, Taf. 6/94.

[28] Gedl 2001, p. 337, Abb. 7.

[29] See also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 53/10.

[30] See also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 52/12.

5. *Kantharos* vessel with handles ended in plain bosses; the neck had fine, horizontal fluting and the shoulder is decorated by rafter-shaped lines (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand; fine; S II/1966; □ 1-14; ▼ 0,30-0,60)[31] (pl. 8/2);

6. *Kantharos* vessel with handles ending in conical buttons. The base of the neck is fit with a rib which superimposes a horizontal fluting; the shoulder is decorated by fine, rafter-shaped fluting (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 8-9; ▼ 0-0,50)[32] (pl. 8/3);

7. Fragment of *kantharos* vessel with the handles ending in conical buttons; the shoulder is fit with horizontal fluting (inside/outside: black-grey, polished surface; sand; fine; S V/1966; □ 1-4; ▼ 0,40-0,80) (pl. 9/8);

8. *Kantharos*, crested handle (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand; fine; S V/1966; □ 4; ▼ 0,60-0,80) (pl. 6/15);

9. *Kantharos* handle with triangular section (inside/outside: black; polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 8-9; ▼ 0,30-0,50) (pl. 6/6);

10. Fragment of a *kantharos* vessel. The neck had three horizontal fluting lines and the shoulder is fit with fine, vertical fluting (inside/outside: black; polished surface; sand; fine; □ 5-6; ▼ 0,40-0,60) (pl. 6/3);

11. *Kantharos*, bossed handle (inside/outside: black; polished surface; sand; fine; □ 10-12; ▼ 0,60-0,90) (pl. 9/7);

12. *Kantharos*, bossed handle (inside/outside: grey; polished surface; sand; fine; S I/1966; □ 16; ▼ 0,40) (pl. 9/6);

13. Fragment of *kantharos* vessel with crested handle (inside/outside: black; polished surface; sand; fine; S V/1967; □ 5; ▼ 0,30-0,50) (pl. 7/1);

14. *Kantharos* handle with conical button (inside/outside: grey slip; polished surface; sand; fine; *passim*) (pl. 9/2);

15. Fragment of *kantharos* handle with conical button (inside/outside: light-brown; polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 5-6; ▼ 0,30) (pl. 9/3);

16. Fragment of *kantharos* vessel with handles ending in plain bosses. The shoulder has oblique fluting. The surface is covered by a white-transparent engobe, like on the materials of the Ha A, in the Valley of Mureş (inside/outside: light-brown; polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 4; ▼ 0,52-0,67) (pl. 7/2);

17. Fragmentary, bi-conical vessel with round body, short neck and slightly everted rim. The base of the neck had two handles, one belonged to the Noua type and has a plain button and the other one is small and tubular. It is most likely that each handle has its pair on the opposite side of the vessel. The space between the handles is decorated by a wide, horizontal fluting flanked by polished, oval impressions (inside/outside: grey-black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine) (pl. 15).

Podul Pripocului is once again the place where a Noua cup[33] has been discovered. It is grey, with smooth surface, and it is preserved in the Museum of Sebeş[34] (pl. 14/2) (inventory no. 82/251).

Besides the pottery of the Noua type from the settlement at Sebeş, we could add more cattle crested shoulder blades[35] (pl. 13/1-5), which in Transylvania are assigned, with no exception, to the Noua population. All pieces are in fragmentary condition and have traces of intense use all over the surface which leads to the formation of a specific polish. It is most likely that the "crested shoulder blades" were used at scraping animal skins and the fat was collected in the glenoid cavity of the shoulder blade. It is to be noticed that the "teeth" were intensely blunt, suggesting that they were the most active part of such tools.

The Noua pottery group perfectly fits the typology established for this archaeological culture. There has often been made a difference between these discoveries and

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[31] See also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 55/9.
[32] See also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 53/6.
[33] See also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 53/7.
[34] The vessel is present in the inventory record only that it originates from the former collection of the Sebeş Evangelical Gymnasium.
[35] See Andriţoiu 1992, p. 66, pl. 56/3-4; 8-12.

the materials they have been associated with from central and south-western Transylvania, so that many settlements have appeared to be "true" Noua settlements. This is the case of the settlement at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului, which also contains other discoveries that mostly are contemporary to the group presented above, or they can date later in time, but not later than the Late Bronze Age.

1. Bowl fragment with outcurving rim, decorated on the shoulder by a row of oblique impressions (inside/outside: light-brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S II/1966; □ 1-14; ▼ 0,40-0,60) (pl. 5/4);

2. Pottery fragment decorated by a horizontal fluting flanked in the lower part by a row of oblique impressions (inside/outside: grey; polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S IX/1967; S IX/1967; ▼ 0,60-1,00) (pl. 6/14);

3. Fragment of bi-conical vessel with widened and outcurving rim, decorated by oblique fluting (inside/outside: light-brown, polished surface; sand and crushed shards; fine; *passim*) (pl. 5/3);

4. Lip fragment of vessel decorated by horizontal fluting, flanked by oval impressions (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 4-5; ▼ 0,70-1,20) (pl. 6/7);

5. Fragment of vessel lip, decorated by horizontal fluting (inside/outside: grey-black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; passim 2005) (pl. 6/8);

6. Pottery fragment of bi-conical vessel decorated by five horizontal fluting (inside: grey; outside: grey; polished surface; sand; fine; S II/1967; ▼ 0,60-1,10) (pl. 11/8);

7. Fragment of conical tureen decorated by horizontal fluting (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S II/1966; □ 1-14) (pl. 11/5).

8. Fragment of cup with bulging body, decorated on the neck by two horizontal fluting (inside/outside: black; polished surface; sand; fine; *passim*) (pl. 11/4);

9. Mug fragment with strongly bulging body, short neck and upper-raised handle (inside: grey; outside: grey and brick-red spots and polished surface; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 0,60-1,10) (pl. 12/1);

10. Pottery fragment decorated at the base of the neck by horizontal fluting and on the shoulder, by oblique fluting (inside: grey; outside: black with grey-yellowish spots; sand; fine; S V/1966; □ 1-4; ▼ 0,40-0,60) (pl. 6/5);

11. Fragment from the upper part of a tall-necked vessel and widened rim (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S V/1966; □ 5-6; ▼ 0,40-0,60) (pl. 5/2);

12. Fragment of mug with bi-conical body, slightly outcurving rim and upper-raised handle (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VI/1967; □ 2-4;▼ 0,20-0,30) (pl. 12/3);

13. Fragment of vessel decorated on the shoulder with oblique fluting interrupted by small circles made with the same technique, marked by a horizontal fluting (inside: grey; outside: black-yellowish, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 8-9; ▼ 0,70-1,20) (pl. 6/10);

14. Fragment of bi-conical tureen with outcurving rim (inside/outside: light-brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 0-0,60) (pl. 10/3);

15. Fragment of vessel body with the shoulder decorated by pressed in into socket method (inside/outside: brown slip; sand and pebbles; fine; S I/1966; □ 1-8; ▼ 0,50-0,70)[36] (pl. 4/6);

16. Fragment of vessel shoulder with bi-conical body decorated at the neck base by three horizontal fluting (inside/outside: light-brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S I/1966; □ 1-8; ▼ 0,50-0,90) (pl. 6/12);

17. Fragment of bi-conical vessel with the shoulder decorated by fluted circles (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S V/1966; □ 9-10;▼ 1,60-2,00) (pl. 6/11);

18. Bowl fragment with outcurving rim, with the body decorated by slightly oblique, narrow fluting (inside: grey; outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S II/1966; □ 1-14; ▼ 0,40-0,60) (pl. 10/6);

[36] Discovery that belongs to the first stage of the Iron Age.

19. Fragment of slightly bi-conical vessel has the shoulder fit with small handles which are decorated by metopes of fine, vertical fluting in between (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 6-7; ▼ 0,70-1,20) (pl. 12/4);

20. Fragment of bi-conical vessel with decorated shoulder by oblique fluting (inside: black; outside: black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S V/1966; □ 15; ▼ 0-0,40) (pl.10/8);

21. Mug fragment with upper-raised handle had the shoulder fit with conical knob (inside: grey, polished surface; outside: black, polished surface, sand; fine; S I/1966; □ 15; ▼ 0-0,40) (pl. 5/1);

22. Fragment of bi-conical vessel with decorated shoulder by wide, spaced, vertical fluting (inside: grey, polished surface; outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 4-5; ▼ 0,50-0,80) (pl. 10/11);

23. Fragment of bi-conical vessel with cylindrical neck. The base of the neck is fit with handles and between them are two narrow, horizontal fluting, as well as the shoulder is decorated by oblique fluting of the same type (inside: light-brown with black spots; outside: grey, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S I/1966; □ 15; ▼ 0-0,40) (pl. 11/9);

24. Pottery fragment of vessel shoulder, the vessel being decorated by mid-sized, oblique fluting (inside/outside: light-brown, polished surface, sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 1,15-1,55) (pl. 10/5);

25. Lip fragment of bag-shaped vessel decorated by a triangular-profiled belt (inside/outside: black; sand and pebbles; coarse; S IX/1967; ▼ 1,15-1,55) (pl. 4/1);

26. Fragment of vessel with slightly outcurving rim and decorated shoulder by a row of impressions (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 1,15-1,55) (pl. 10/1);

27. Fragment of vessel with rounded body, decorated under the lip with narrow, horizontal fluting and the shoulder was decorated by oblique, narrow fluting (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S I/1966; □ 18; ▼ 0-0,40) (pl. 5/5);

28. Fragment of vessel with decorated shoulder by narrow, medium-sized, rafter-shaped fluting (inside/outside: grey slip; sand and pebbles; semi-fine; *passim* 1966) (pl. 11/10);

29. Lip fragment of conical vessel with slightly outcurving rim (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S VI/1967; □ 4-5; ▼ 0,30-0,50) (pl. 4/7);

30. Pottery fragment decorated by running zig-zagged incisions and incised, horizontal strips (inside: light-brown; outside: grey; sand and pebbles; semi-fine; S VI/1967; □ 4-5; ▼ 0,30-0,50) (pl. 4/4);

31. Pottery fragment decorated by running zig-zagged incisions and incised, horizontal strips (inside/outside: brick-red, sand and pebbles; semi-fine; S VI/1967; ▼ 0-0,60) (pl. 4/5);

32. Pottery fragment decorated at the base of the neck by zig-zagged incisions (inside: grey, polished surface; outside: light-brown, polished surface; sand and pebbles; fine; S III/1966; □ 9-12; ▼ 0,20-0,60) (pl. 4/3);

33. Pottery fragment decorated by oblique fluting (inside: grey; outside: light-brown; sand; fine; S II71966; □ 9-12; ▼ 0,20-0,60) (pl. 10/12);

34. Fragmentary handle with the base decorated by upside down "V"-shaped incisions (light-brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S III/1966; □ 9-12; ▼ 0,20-0,60) (pl. 4/2);

35. Fragment of conical bowl with inverted rim decorated on its lower side by comb made, fine, vertical incisions (inside/outside: grey, polished surface; sand; fine; S III/1966) (pl. 11/6);

36. Fragment of decorated shoulder by arched fluting (inside: light-brown; outside: black, polished surface, sand; fine; *passim* 1966) (pl. 10/7);

37. Pottery fragment decorated by oblique, narrow fluting (inside/ outside: grey; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 0-0,60) (pl. 10/10);

38. Pottery fragment decorated on the lower part by wide, oblique fluting (inside/outside: black, polished surface; sand; fine; S VI/1967; □ 4-5; ▼ 0,70-1,20) (pl. 10/9);

39. Pottery fragment of a vessel decorated at the base of its neck by a horizontal fluting, and the shoulder by metopes of vertical fluting (inside: light-brown, polished surface; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 0-0,60) (pl. 6/1);

40. Pottery fragment decorated on the shoulder by narrow, horizontal fluting which superimposed the same type of fluting, but arranged in arches (?) (inside/outside: grey; polished; sand; fine; S IX/1967; ▼ 0-0,60) (pl. 6/4);

41. Base fragment of large-sized vessel decorated at its lower part by vertically applied barbotine (inside: brick-red; outside: black; sand and crushed shards; coarse; Gava typology; *passim*) (pl. 10/13).

It is likely that some materials of the Late Bronze Age that were to be found at great depths (comparable to the generous stratigraphy of the site), which were uncovered in S IX/1967, at - 1,15-1,55) (pl. 4/1; 10/1, 5), in S II/1966, □ 17, at - 1,15-1,55 (pl. 6/13) or in S V/1966, □ 9-10, at - 1,60-2,00) (pl. 6/11) originate from the bottom of some features.

The cultural framing of the Late Bronze Age discoveries from Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului* raises a series of issues that only illustrate the complex phenomena at that time in the south-western Transylvania. It is known that a settlement was found at Sebeş and has been assigned to the Noua archaeological culture (with pottery and specific bone tools)[37], as well as a layer of specific materials, no features, as it has been mentioned[38] (with plenty of ash[39]), but difficult to differentiate from the one of the Basarabi culture[40]. The Noua materials from Sebeş, besides the ones at Teiuş, could prove, according to K. Horedt, a late stage (III[rd] phase) of the so-called Noua-Teiuş culture. The theory has been later submitted by other researchers as this stage could illustrate a progress in the "hallstattian way" of the material culture, which could stand for the extension of the Noua culture until the Ha A_{1-41}. This hypothesis has been submitted by Horedt since 1953, when he said that some vessels of the "Teiuş group", decorated by fluting, *"stand for a clear hallstattian typology"*[42].

It's necessary to mention from the beginning that the settlement at Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului* did not uncover within the investigated group from the 1960, 1966-1967 campaigns *any* Wietenberg III/C pottery fragment or Gáva pottery, as it appears in the area beginning with Teleac I level. We emphasize this observation within the vertical evolution of the site and within the possibility of mixed materials. The habitation dating in the Late Bronze Age is placed between Wietenberg II[43] and Basarabi[44] habitations.

The analysis of the pottery from the features excavated in 1960 confronts us with another situation, likely to be completely different from what we know about the settlement at *Podul Pripocului*. The two identified features lack elements of the Noua type or of the Noua-Late Wietenberg (Gligoreşti group). Based on their characteristics, which have already been presented and discussed, they could be assigned to the post-Noua period (in south-western Transylvania), during the Hallstatt period. An earlier stage (Ha A_1) could be illustrated by *Feature B*, but this statement is ambiguous. Still, the inventory uncovered by *Feature A* revealed advanced elements. We think the presence of Gáva pottery fragment (pl. 1/4) could frame it at the end of the Late Bronze Age III, in the Ha A_2 stage. We have noticed the vessels made with barbotine (pl. 2/8-9) which we would find again in the features at Aurel Vlaicu (see below) associated with Cugir-Band pottery (Ha A_1-Ha A_2). The typology, shapes and decoration of some vessels like the ones that were revealed among the materials in the Neolithic dwelling, point in this situation to a developed stage of the Late Bronze Age. This is acknowledged by the rim typology which resembles very much Gáva pottery (pl. 11/3), as well

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[37] Florescu 1991, p. 117, fig. 13; 98/1; 140/6; 149/1; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 62 sqq., 124, pl. 52/1-2, 4, 6-7, 9-12; 53/6-8, 10; 55/3-12; 56.

[38] Andriţoiu 1992, p. 64.

[39] Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 122.

[40] We thank Dr. I. Al. Aldea for the information regarding site stratigraphy.

[41] Andriţoiu 1992, p. 67 sq.

[42] Horedt 1953, p. 807, 810. I. Berciu and Al. Popa wrote about the Noua 'developed forms' in this cemetery after work has been resumed in 1969 (Berciu, Popa 1965 a, p. 47).

[43] The area was inhabited during the Wietenberg III phase in the place Glod (Lancrăm), approximately 4 km from Podul Pripocului (Popa, Simina 2004, p. 17 sqq.).

[44] A Hallstatt B-C habitation has been identified in the same site at Lancrăm-Glod (Popa, Simina 2004, p. 31 sqq., pl. 19-21).

as by the vessel neck with wide fluting (pl. 11/1) which is similar to the ones met in the discoveries of the early Gáva in north-eastern Hungary[45]. We can observe the same typology of the Gáva culture to a large-sized vessel, which was bichrome fired and decorated with vertically applied barbotine originating from the cultural layer (pl. 10/13).

It's difficult to establish the relationship between these materials and the ones with analogies in Crişana, the Igriţa group. We refer here first to the multi-staged, bi-conical vessel of *Feature B* and then to the vessel and pottery fragments that were found in the place called *Dealul de Lut* (which is actually the same site)[46], for which there are analogies in the discoveries of the Igriţa type[47]. The latter ones, through shape, decoration and typology, indicate an earlier stage that could be dated in the Reinecke Bz. D-Ha A_1.

It is likely these materials have something in common with the thickened-head bronze needle decorated by incisions[48] (pl. 12/2). This is proved by the lack of this needle from the Noua discoveries and from the discoveries containing objects of the Noua type and its frequency in the western areas. There are analogies within the Vatina culture[49], in the Igriţa environment (Izbândiş Cave[50], Şuncuiuş[51] and in a discovery with unknown location from the north-western Romania[52]), in Igriţa, the Transylvania variant, at Deva-*Viile Noi*[53], in the Ha A settlement at Uioara de Jos-*Grui*[54], in the Cehăluţ group (Crasna[55]), in bronze hoards of the Cincu-Suseni series (Guşteriţa II[56], Uioara de Sus[57], Zau de Câmpie[58]), in the hoard at Mada (Hunedoara county)[59], in a surface settlement at Lunca Târnavei[60], in the Uriu-Opályi hoard[61] or rather grave, according to M. Gumă from Cornuţel[62], in the hoard at Doboz (Hungary) (Ha A_1)[63] or in the necropolis from Ticvaniul Mare (Ha A)[64]. This type of needles lasted in Transylvania until the final Ha B_2-Ha B_3, as well as in level II from Teleac[65]. Another object from Doştat (Alba County) which has been recently assigned to the same type[66] is regarded by M. Petrescu-Dâmboviţa as „a decorated bronze chisel with spiral" (sic!)[67] is most likely fragment of a bracelet. This type of needle is frequently met in central Europe and, even though it isn't a good chronological reference, it is indicator of the connections to west-Transylvania penetrated by the courses of the Mureş, Criş and Someş rivers.

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[45] For example, Kemenczei 1982, Abb. 3/8; 4/1; 10/1-2, 4-5; Kemenczei 1984, Taf. CXXIX/1; CXXX/1-3, 5.

[46] Although they entered the literature under different names, Podul Pripocului and Dealul de Lut, respectively, the two points belong to one large settlement spreading over the terrace from the left of Secaş and the neighbouring hill, arbitrary parted by the railway that splits the site into two.

[47] The vessel is finished with grey slip inside and outside, the surface is rough being degreased with sand and pebbles: Totoianu 2001, p. 83 sqq., pl. 2/3-5. In matters of vessel shape, see a close analogy at Bíró Lajos Cave (Emődi 1995, p. 13, fig. 10/1).

[48] Totoianu 2001, p. 86, pl. 2/1, and the correct drawing of the decoration; see also Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 72/24; Andriţoiu 1993, pl. VIII/24.

[49] Milleker 1902, Pl. I/1.

[50] Chidioşan, Emödi 1982, p. 80, 82, fig. 8/4; Chidioşan, Emödi 1983, p. 19, fig. 9/7. This type of needle is identically transposed into the bone, too. (Chidioşan, Emödi 1983, p. 19, fig. 9/8).

[51] Dumitraşcu, Crişan 1989, p. 49, pl. L/5.

[52] Emődi 2003, p. 117, fig. 16.

[53] Andriţoiu 1969, p. 44 sq., fig. 9; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 84, pl. 72/39; Andriţoiu 1993, p. 105, pl. VIII/39.

[54] Ciugudean 1994 b, p. 71, fig. 2/1.

[55] Bejinariu, Lakó 1996, p. 172 sq., 177, fig. 35/1. The object was found in a dwelling (L 1) and has been dated in Bz D-Ha A; Bejinariu, Lakó 2000, p. 172 sq., fig. 35/1; Bejinariu 2005, p. 58, pl. V/10.

[56] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, p. 96, pl. 160/12.

[57] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, p. 116, pl. 268/37-41, 46-48.

[58] Rusu 1972, pl. 219/4.

[59] Rişcuţa et. al. 2009, p. 265, fig. 11/4; Pescaru et. al. 2001, p. 33.

[60] Bărbat 2008, p. 49, fig. 2/1.

[61] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, p. 55, pl. 35/7.

[62] Gumă 1993, p. 252, pl. XIII/3.

[63] Szathmári 1991, kép. 6/1, 3-4.

[64] Gumă 1993, p. 175, pl. XXV/4d-5f.

[65] Vasiliev et. al. 1991, p. 64 sq., fig. 18/12; Vasiliev 2004, p. 136.

[66] Totoianu 2001, p. 86, pl. 2/2.

[67] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, p. 59, pl. 46/26.

To the Ha A period could be assigned the bowl fragment with inverted rim, decorated with vertical, comb-made grooves (pl. 11/6), which is similar to the discoveries at Cugir and Band (see the discussion below).

Some pottery could be assigned to the Noua type, which through several specific decorations illustrate the Noua-Wietenberg cultural synthesis extending to the Sebeş area, namely to the recent *Gligoreşti group* which comprises the two cultural components[68]. We can include here the pottery fragments from pl. 5/3-4; 6/7-8; 12, 14; 10/1, 3. Zig-zagged incisions emerged in the tumulus culture[69].

Extremely interesting shows to be the bi-conical vessel with round body, fit at the neck base with handles of the Noua type (pl. 15). Other vessels than cups and *kantharoses* with buttoned handles are very rare in Transylvania. We indicate here the vessel at Băcăinţi[70] and the handle from Simeria-*În Coastă*[71], both from south-western Transylvania. Such vessels with handles on the body are exclusive finds of the Noua I phase from Moldova[72], lacking the next phase; but they are also present in the Coslogeni archaeological culture[73].

Sebeş surroundings, or even Sebeş uncovered several old collection vessels[74] (pl. 14/1), of which one is from Petreşti[75] (pl. 14/3). A complete *kantharos* vessel with buttoned handles is registered in the literature as originating from Alba Iulia[76], but it could be from Sebeş region[77]. We'd like to draw attention to the base decoration of this vessel which comprised three sockets arranged in the peaks of a triangle, but none of the authors of its publication pointed it out (pl. 14/4). This motif appears in the pottery decoration dated in the Bz. C-D of the Carpathian Basin[78]. A *kantharos* from the former collection of the Evangelic Gymnasium, whose place of discovery is unknown, has faceted body and one of its handles has vitrified traces (pl. 7/3)[79].

Regarding the materials of the Late Bronze Age at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului which have been presented in this study[80], there is a problem, rather difficult to explain at present, namely that of establishing the upper limit of the evolution in the case of the Noua culture in Transylvania: either this phenomenon is seen as a manifestation under this name, or as a cultural mixture of the Gligoreşti type. It hasn't been proved yet that, for four decades, the so-called late facies of the Noua culture, called by K. Horedt *Noua-Teiuş*, which could reach the Reinecke Ha A[81], is likely to have existed in central Transylvania, the more it could belong to the Ha A_1, although it has been considered in recent decades to have covered the entire intra-

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[68] See the map with the spreading area of this synthesis in Gogâltan 2001, pl. VII. Discussions on this group in Gogâltan et al. 2004, p. 73 sq.

[69] Kovács 1965, p. 66, kép. 14/1, 4, 6.

[70] Andriţoiu 1986, p. 43, fig. 3/5.

[71] Andriţoiu 1982-1983, p. 129, 131, pl. 2/10; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 71 sq., pl. 59/10.

[72] At Truşeşti, Glăvăneştii Vechi, Bârlad, Lichitişeni, Tăvădărăşti, Gârbovăţ, Cavadineşti, Balinteşti, Căbeşti (Florescu 1991, fig. 35/1; 36/6; 50/4; 52/11; 61/15, 17-18; 66/26, 29, 33; 68/41; 69/57; 73/6-7; 200/16; 204/1; 205/7).

[73] At Călăraşi-Măgureni, Rasa, Crăsani (Florescu 1991, fig. 86/5, 7; 90/1; 90/4-5).

[74] Horedt 1953, p. 807, pos. 27-28; Berciu, Popa 1965 b, p. 547, note 1, fig. 1b; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 142, position. 127.

[75] Horedt 1953, p. 807, pos. 23; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 141, pos. 112

[76] Horedt 1953, p. 806, no. 2; Berciu, Popa 1965 b, p. 547, no. 1, fig. 1a; Florescu 1991, p. 24, fig. 172/3; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 119, pl. 53/11.

[77] The inventory record of the Sebeş Museum (no.inv. 81/250) registers only the fact that the vessel originates from the former collection of the Sebeş Evangelic Gymnasium which mostly comprises materials from the present territory of Sebeş county.

[78] Kovács 1975, Abb. 9. The decoration is surrounded by small points and is comprised in the collection at Boroffka 1994 b, p. 8, fig. 2/E.

[79] The vessel is light-brown on both sides and has polished surface. A similar style of faceted decoration is to be found in Ha A, at Oarda-Bulza (Rustoiu 2000, p. 163, pl. I/9), in the case of a vessel from the necropolis at Ticvaniul Mare (Gumă 1993, pl. XXIV/1), at Susani-Deluţ (Stratan, Vulpe 1977, Taf. 28/22) or in the Velatice-Baierdorf archaeological culture (Paulik 1962, Taf. VI/6, 9-10).

[80] There have been presented but a series of fragments or parts of a bag-shaped vessel, of common use, rather many in this site, or bone objects; see to this Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 52/1-2, 4, 6, 10; 55/4-8, 10, 11-12; 56).

[81] Horedt 1967 b, p. 45.

Carpathian space[82], or only the Middle Mureş Basin[83]. However, the idea of the Noua development exceeding Bz D[84] has been excluded recently, at least for the south-western and central Transylvania. As seen before, the settlement at Sebeş uncovered vessels of the Noua type (pl. 15) with analogies only in the Noua I phase.

The handles with conical buttons from settlements with no elements of the Noua/Gligoreşti type have always generated a quick reaction to matters of chronology of this cultural phenomenon. A similar handle is known in the settlement assigned to the Igriţa group, at Simeria-*În Coastă* (pl. 39/4), leading to the synchronism between this habitation and the Noua culture and Lăpuş I phase[85]. Another similar discovery was found in the settlement at Cugir-Band at Oarda-*Bulza*. Based on this, the entire material from here has been similarly synchronized with the Lăpuş I phase, thus dating the site and the entire group earlier, especially by comparing it to the handles with conical buttons from the Lăpuş I environment[86]. We have also introduced a discovery from Ciugud-*După Grădini*, related to the materials we have dated in the Ha A period and assigned to the Uioara de Jos group[87]. It's to be noted the good quality nature of these handles with conical buttons, different from the Noua type, as it is the case of a handle from Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului* (pl. 9/3). We think they are but Noua inheritance. We'd like to point out in this context a handle with large, disc-shaped button that was found at Războieni (Alba county)[88] (pl. 34/3), single representative for central Transylvania, which resembles very much the ones from the Lăpuş environment[89] and the smaller ones found in eastern Transylvania of the Noua culture, phase II (Feldioara[90], Olteni[91], Chintelnic[92]).

In what concerns the character of the Noua discoveries in south-western Transylvania, there has been a tendency once to believe these materials not conclusive to a cultural award, especially because they were situated in the western periphery of the main spreading area[93].

There are three funeral discoveries of the Noua culture west of Sebeş, on the Mureş corridor. Except the cremation necropolis at Tărtăria-*Valea Rea*[94], the cremation grave that has been found at Vinerea, on the Valley of Cugir is, up to now, the westernmost point illustrating rite and funeral ritual specific of the Noua culture[95]. Moreover, there is an inurn cremation grave that was found at Băcăinţi- *Obreje* which is always submitted to documenting the interference between the Late Wietenberg and Noua cultures. The urn is decorated on the maximum diameter of the body with oblique fluting beneath a slightly emphasized sill. The base of the neck is fit with four handles with cylindrical buttons of the Noua type. There was also a small, conical vessel[96] besides the urn, but it is not sure to belong to the funeral

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[82] Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 134; Vasiliev 1997, p. 94; Vasiliev 1999, p. 174.

[83] Rustoiu 1997, p. 23, fig. 2 (chronological table).

[84] Ciugudean 1994 b, p. 73, fig. 7 (chronological table).

[85] Andriţoiu 1982-1983, p. 129, 131, pl. 2/10; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 71 sq., pl. 59/10; vezi şi Rustoiu 1997, p. 22.

[86] Rustoiu 2000, p. 163 sq., pl. I/3. See Kacsó 1975, fig. 11/1 for the conical buttons from Lăpuş. A similar button decorated by spirals, likely of the Lăpuş type, has been published in a colletion fro m Şimleul Silvaniei (Bejinariu 1995, p. 19, pl. 13/7; Popa 1999, n. 21). A buttoned handle of Noua type appeared in the Late Suciu de Sus settlement at Căşeiu (Cluj county) (Gogâltan, Isac 1995, p. 9, Taf. VIII/1).

[87] Popa 1999, p. 112, 118, pl. IV/4, a first discussion on the appearance of this handle type.

[88] The material has been preserved in the school collection of Războieni and was found during sondage. The surface of the handle was polished and was brown.

[89] See Kacsó 2004, pl. LIX/2; IX/1.

[90] Florescu 1991, p. 66, fig. 20/1.

[91] Buzea 2006, p. 70 sq., pl. VII/9-10. Noua habitation from here indicates an advanced phase of development.

[92] Marinescu 1995, p. 55, pl. XV/4.

[93] Andriţoiu 1978, p. 75, no. 57.

[94] Berciu, Berciu 1949, p. 30, 32 sq., fig. 26; Horedt 1949, p. 57; Andriţoiu 1986, p. 31, 35; Florescu 1991, p. 126; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 64 sq.; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 144, pos. 154.

[95] Andriţoiu 1986, p. 32; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 63; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, fig. 1.

[96] Vasiliev 1983, p. 37, no. 17; Andriţoiu 1986, p. 43, fig. 3/5; Andriţoiu 1986-1987, p. 57, 59, 62, pl. VI/1-2; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 33, no. 346, pl. 28/2, 4; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 134, fig. 8/1; Andriţoiu 1994, p. 147, 152, fig. 9/1-2; Borofĭka 1994 a, p. 17 (pos. 31), 106, 130, Taf. 3/1; Andriţoiu 1996, p. 224.

discovery. In 1983, V. Vasiliev pointed out the urn by awarding it to the Wietenberg culture[97]. Subsequently it has been published by I. Andriţoiu with proof standing for it being contemporaneous to Wietenberg-Noua cultures and being associated to Wietenberg urns from the necropolis at Sibişeni[98]. We think that the grave doesn't belong to the Noua culture, but it is a cultural facies of the Late Bronze Age, the Gligoreşti type.

We know of the westernmost crested shoulder blade of the Noua type[99], from Vinţu de Jos-*Lunca Fermei* which generally stands proof for the specific discoveries of this culture from the western border. The elements of the Noua type which were identified based on the typical buttoned vessels appear isolated and much outside western Transylvania, marked by the Cugir River. Thus, it is important to mention the discoveries at Hunedoara-*Grădina Castelului* (two "Noua handles"[100]), at Cauce Cave (one fragmentary *kantharos* with Noua handle)[101], at Peşteana (a *kantharos* wall with Noua decoration)[102], and the ones at Românești-*Peştera cu Apă* where we have registered a *kantharos* with Noua handle, decorated by motifs of the Late Balta Sărată period[103].

It is clear that south-western Transylvania is comprised in the area with Noua monuments, but its eastern part only, where the settlement at Sebeş-*Podul Pripocului* is also situated. This settlement was the only one submitted to systematic surface survey and uncovered specific elements of habitation and material culture. As we advance towards west, the content of several sites indicate materials specific of the west, suggesting their entrance into new cultural areas that we tried to analyse in another study being printed[104]. H. Ciugudean has stated for a longer period of time that the development of the Noua culture in central Transylvania does not exceed Bz D[105]. His opinion was recently reformulated by expressing a potential existence in the same period of the Late Noua monuments in south-eastern Transylvania and the ones of the Cugir-Band group[106].

The complexity of defining and drawing spatial and temporal limits of cultural manifestations developing after the 'Classic' Bronze Age in central and south-western Transylvania stand in the stage of knowledge and in forwarding old theories undersigned by most specialists. The presence of the Noua culture in Transylvania and its character is still controversial. The situation must be seen in a way which is discriminating the east and west of Transylvania. According to M. Wittenberger, this penetration occurred in a late phase of the culture, when there was no mixture of Wietenberg-Otomani-Suciu de Sus groups, which was previously defined by M. Rotea as *Bădeni III-Deva*[107]. In the times of this group and subsequently, a synthesis emerged which resulted from entering the Noua culture in Transylvania, with its fully and consistent participation that led to a new 'cultural horizon', called by Wittenberg either *Buza-Teiuş*, or *Buza-Iernut* being part of the Noua cultural complex[108]. Based on recent excavations carried out at Cluj-*Banatului Street*, the same author suggests a division of the site: Wietenberg III-Wietenberg IV, followed by Noua funerals[109].

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[97] Vasiliev 1983, p. 37, no. 17.

[98] Andriţoiu 1986, p. 43, fig. 3/5; Andriţoiu 1986-1987, p. 58 sq., 62, pl. VI/1-2; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 32; Andriţoiu, Vasiliev 1993, p. 134, fig. 8/1; Andriţoiu 1994, p. 147, 152, fig. 9/1-2; Vasiliev 1997, p. 94 (standing a reserved position).

[99] Ghenescu et. al. 2000, p. 81, pl. IV/10.

[100] Mariş 1992, p. 52, n. 5.

[101] Luca et. al. 2005, p. 48, pl. XIV/2.

[102] Kalmar, Tatu 1986-1987, fig. 1/3, with good analogies at Alba Iulia, Vinţu de Jos-Gară and Trei Poduri (Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 52/8). This is only to mention the discoveries made in south-western Transylvania.

[103] Gumă 1993, pl. VI/2; Rogozea 1994, pl. III/4.

[104] Cristian I. Popa, Radu Totoianu, *Contribuţii la cunoaşterea bronzului târziu în centrul şi sud-vestul Transilvaniei*, in the volume dedicated to the memory of Mircea Rusu (Cluj-Napoca) (ed. Fl. Gogâltan).

[105] Ciugudean 1994 a, p. 35; Ciugudean 1994 b, p. 73.

[106] Ciugudean 2004, p. 181 sq.; Ciugudean et. al. 2006, p. 52.

[107] Rotea 1994.

[108] Bădău-Wittenberger 1994, p. 155. A recent update to accepting earlier penetration of the Noua culture in central Transylvania. (Ţichindeal), see Wittenberger 2006, p. 150.

[109] Wittenberger 2006, p. 150; vezi şi Vasiliev 2007, p. 9.

We question when does Wietenberg culture end and when do specific Wietenberg elements disappear? Since 1967, K. Horedt has considered the possibility to extend the Wietenberg and Noua cultures up to the Hallstatt A culture *'until they would be replaced by the Gava culture and other similar phenomena in the Late Bronze Age (Ha A)*[110]. Can this theory be applied when we strictly refer to the characteristics resulted from the two cultures?

We feel close to ethnic and cultural realities of the Late Bronze Age II (Bz D) in central Transylvania when Fl. Gogâltan defines the *Gligoreşti group*[111] as a synthesis of Noua and local elements, either Late Wietenberg[112] or, according to some, traditional (post-) Wietenberg. Other think we are close to the ethnic and cultural realities of the Late Bronze Age II (Bz D)[113]. There is one goal left, that is naming the cultural content of contemporary manifestations towards west and south-west of Transylvania, and especially of the one to come after it. The penetration of the Noua communities in central Transylvania, especially between the Mureş river and the Apuseni Mountains, in their eastern side, is likely to have had a response in the 'amalgamation' of the local specific, little contaminated by Noua elements which can only be influences or imports[114]. This group of the Late Bronze Age, which we think is different from the one on the Mureş river course, but they meet in the Transylvania Plateau[115], seem to had had a long period of existence, enough to put the bases of its own evolution which is difficult to divide into phases at present. Its development within this group reached the heights of the Apuseni Mountains, like Piatra Craivii, where it met the north-western groups of Cehaluţ and Igriţa. Next, they came into synthesis as the uncovered material from the excavations that had been carried out in the site at Piatra Craivii[116] showed. Based on these aspects, the Apuseni mountain chain was not a cultural barrier but rather a connection between the manifestations in Transylvania and Crişana regions that would accelerate the cultural uniformity from the end of the Bronze Age[117], and which would subsequently comprise many elements from north-western and central European area, the latter ones, likely belonged to the Velatice-Baierdorf group. All that time, the southern chain of the Apuseni Mountains were penetrated by many elements of the Igriţa and Balta Sărată that would grow the south-western variant in Transylvania. We think that the particular note of these materials which makes them different from those in the Crişana region, is a component of the 'classical' Balta Sărată group from south-western Transylvania (especially from Ţara Haţegului) or Banat[118]. The earlier discussed discovery of Gáva materials at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului which are comprised in *non-* Gáva typology, rather stand for the existence of a local specific of the

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[110] Horedt 1967 a, p. 140 sq.; Horedt 1967 b, p. 45.

[111] Gogâltan et. al. 2004, p. 73 sq..

[112] In V. Vasiliev's opinion, this cultural blending is likely to have existed, but it needs to be proved in the future (Vasiliev 2007, p. 8).

[113] Gogâltan et. al. 2004, p. 73 sq.; Stanciu et. al. 2005, p. 405.

[114] See also the „eastern" vessel from Sărtaş (Alba county) awarded to the Balinteşti-Gârbovăţ phase, of the Monteoru culture (Zaharia 1990, p. 37, fig. 3/6).

[115] An attempt to present this synthesis in a different view of content and dating led to defining the Bădeni III-Deva group; see Rotea 1994, who thinks this group is specific for the beginnings of the Late Bronze Age in the intra-Carpathian space. (Rotea 1994, p. 55).

[116] Besides this late published material (see Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 24/8-9; 44/6-12; 45/2, 4-7, 12; 46/2, 5-6, 11; 47/5-6) there are many other elements that can be dated at the end of the Bz D, likely until the beginning of the Ha A_1, lacking Noua elements (unique materials in MNU Alba Iulia, being processed).

[117] K. Horedt well noticed four decades ago the process of pottery uniformization in the "developed bronze" (Bz. D). This process has become more intense the next period, that of the Late Bronze Age (Ha A), due to different cultural areas interfering. (Horedt 1967 a, p. 150).

[118] This type of materials have been published by B. Bassa from Simeria, since 1970. To be more specific, there have been published a pottery fragment of the „classical" Balta Sărată group, decorated by „wolf teeth" (Bassa 1970, fig. 7); Petrescu 1986, p. 216; Kalmar, Tatu 1986-1987, p. 35, 38 sq., 41, fig. 1-4; 5/3, 5-6, 8-12, 13-14; 6/2-4; Tatu et. al. 1991, p. 93, 96, fig. 9/23; Andriţoiu 1992, p. 48, 125, pos. 103, pl. 36/20; Rotea 1993, p. 28; Popa 1999, p. 136; Popa, Ferencz 1999, p. 84 sq.; Roman, Diaconescu 1999-2000, p. 99 sq., pl. IV-VIII (wrongly awarded to the Wietenberg culture; the following fragments can be assigned to the Balta Sărată group: IV/10; V/2, 9; VI/3; VII/1 and perhaps pl. VIII/2, 5); Ursuţ et. al. 2001, pl. 2/2-3, 7; Luca et. al. 2005, p. 47, pl. XIV/4-6; XV/2; XVI/12; XXXI/3; XXXII/1; XXXIV/5-6; Popa 2005, no. 719.

Ha A_2 with imports of the Gáva I type. We can accept these settlements being contemporary with the ones comprising Gáva pottery, represented in this region by the first habitation level at Teleac[119] or Alba Iulia-*Recea*[120].

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[119] Ciugudean 2009, p. 317-318, 332.
[120] Lascu 2006, p. 12-20.

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Fig. 1 A–Western view of the settlement at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului

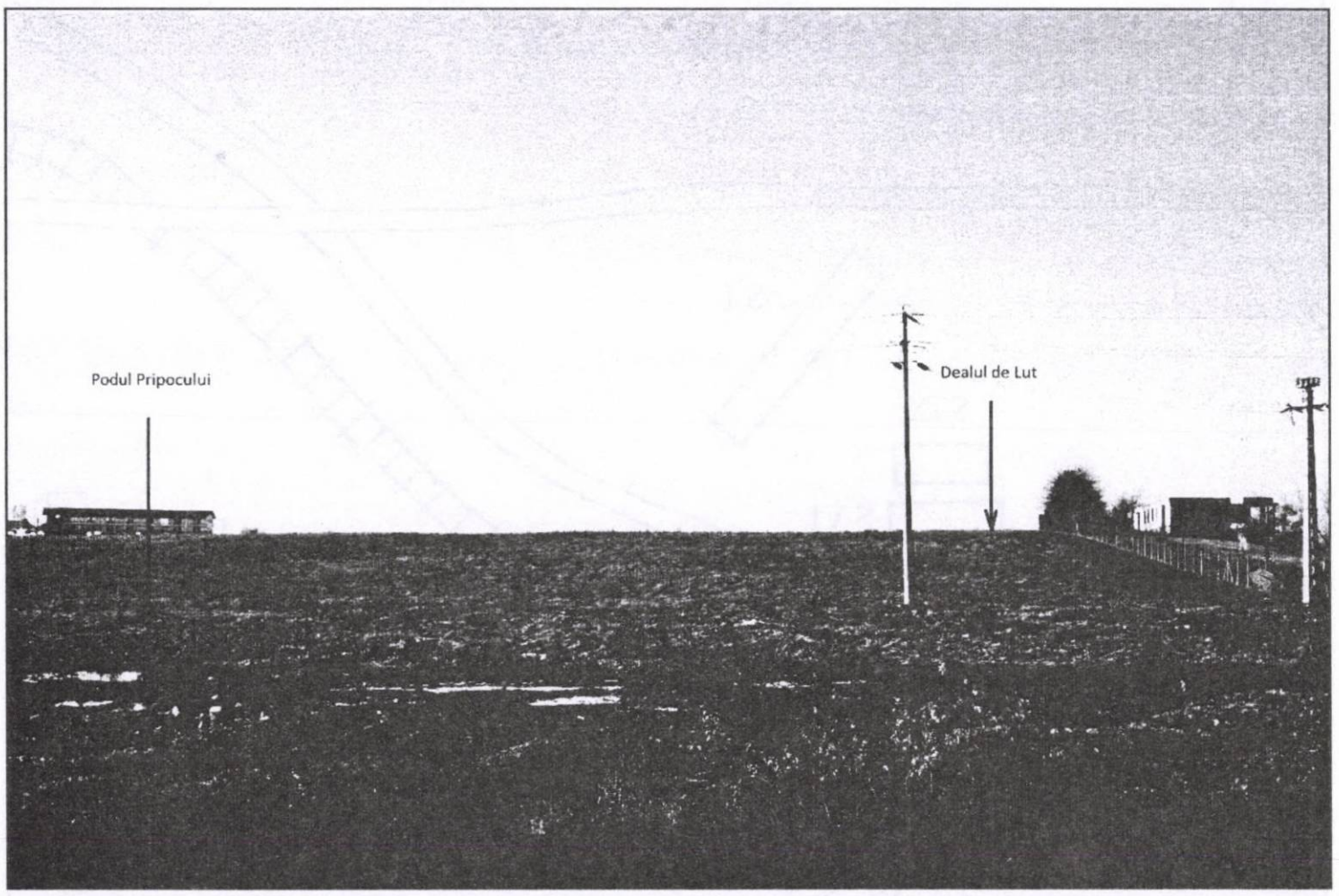


Fig. 1 B–Northern view of the settlement at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului and Dealul de Lut.

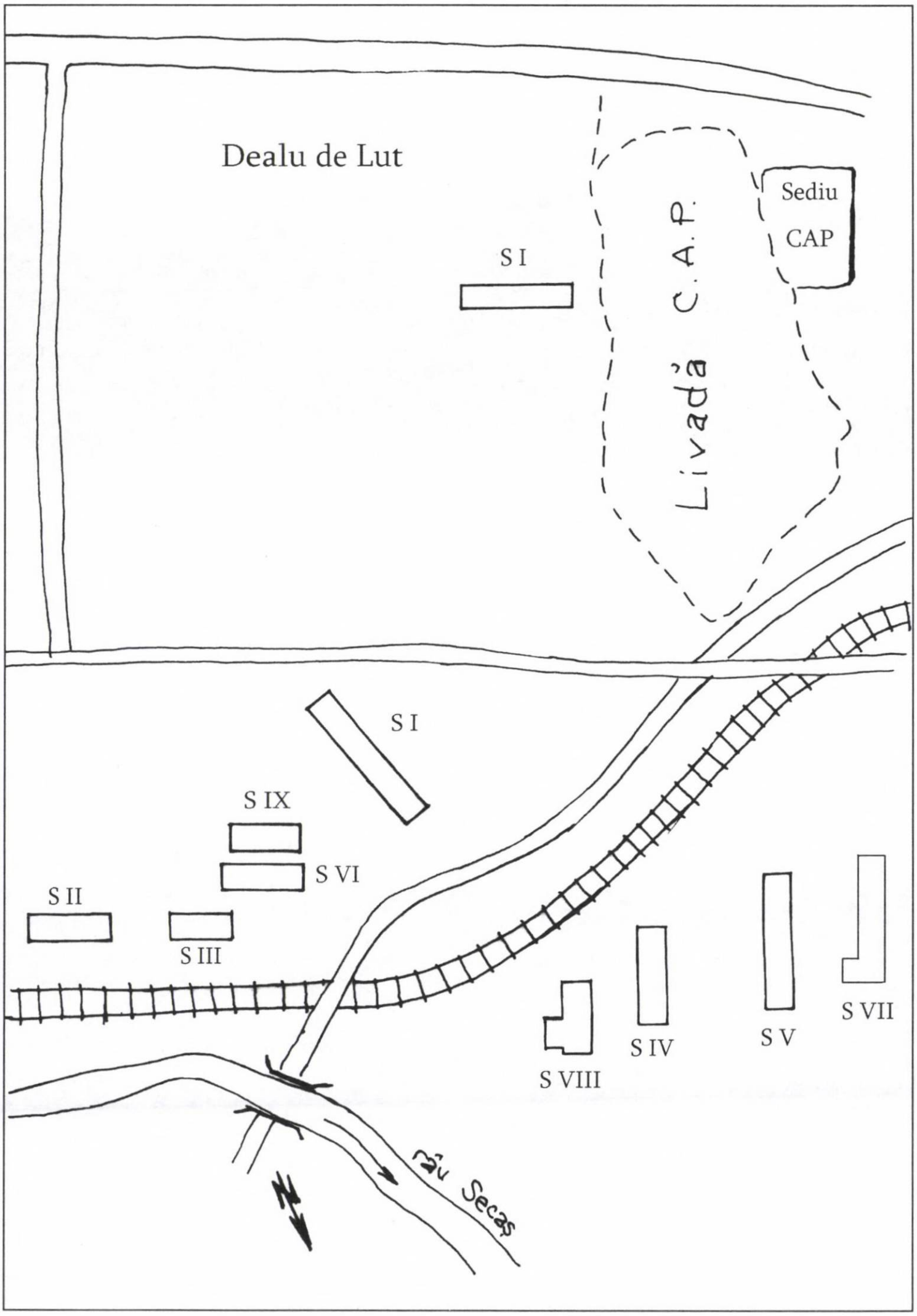
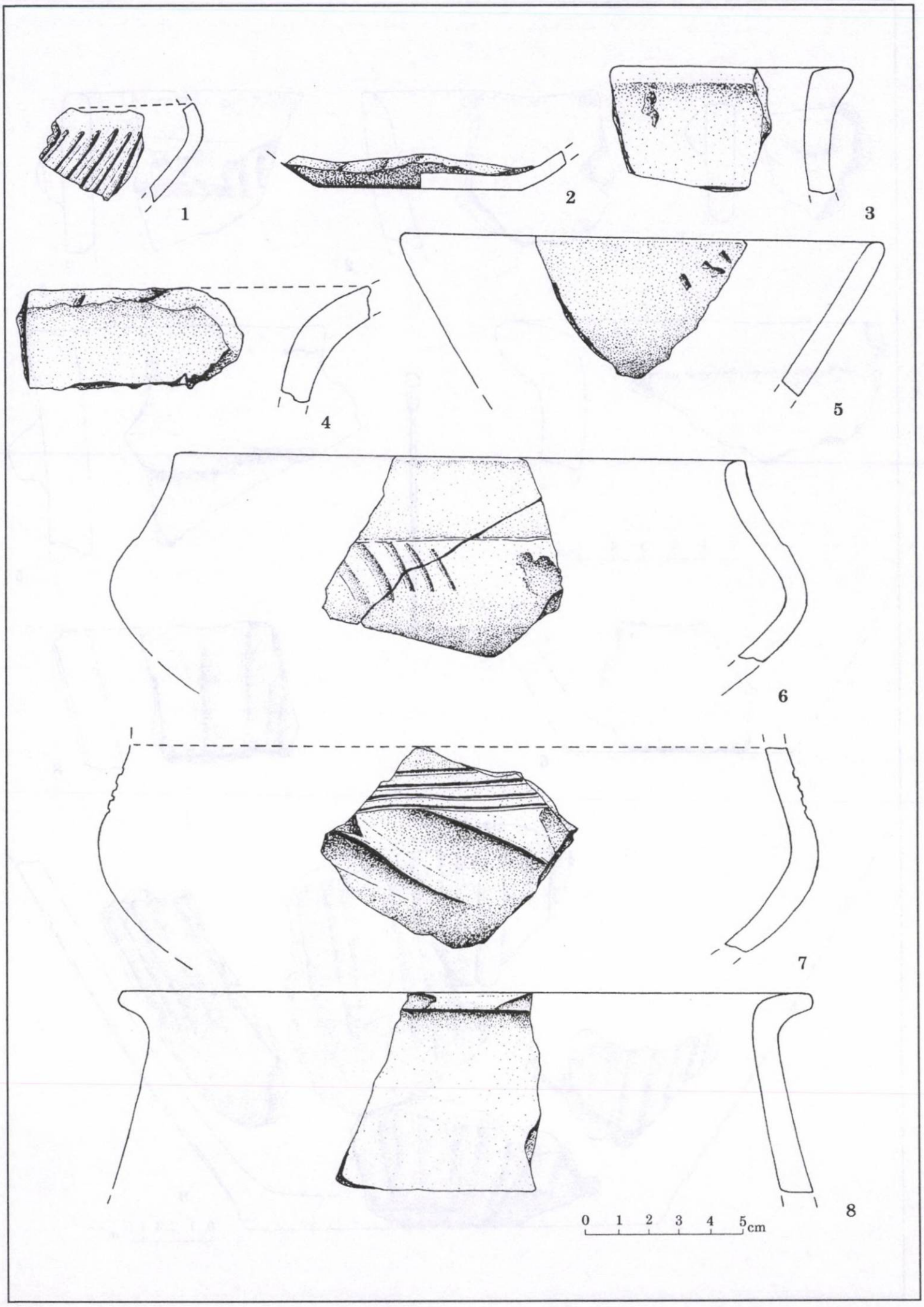
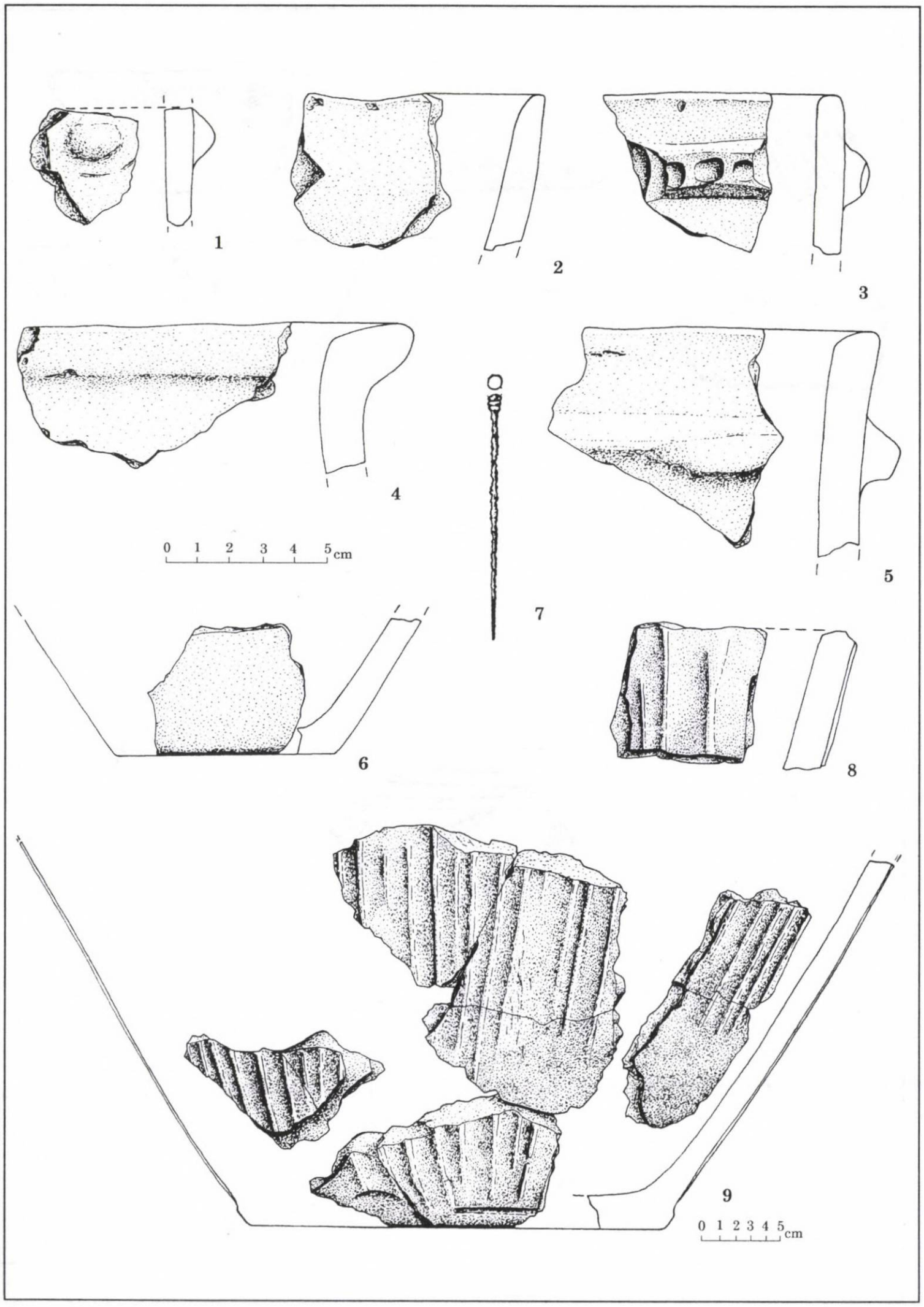


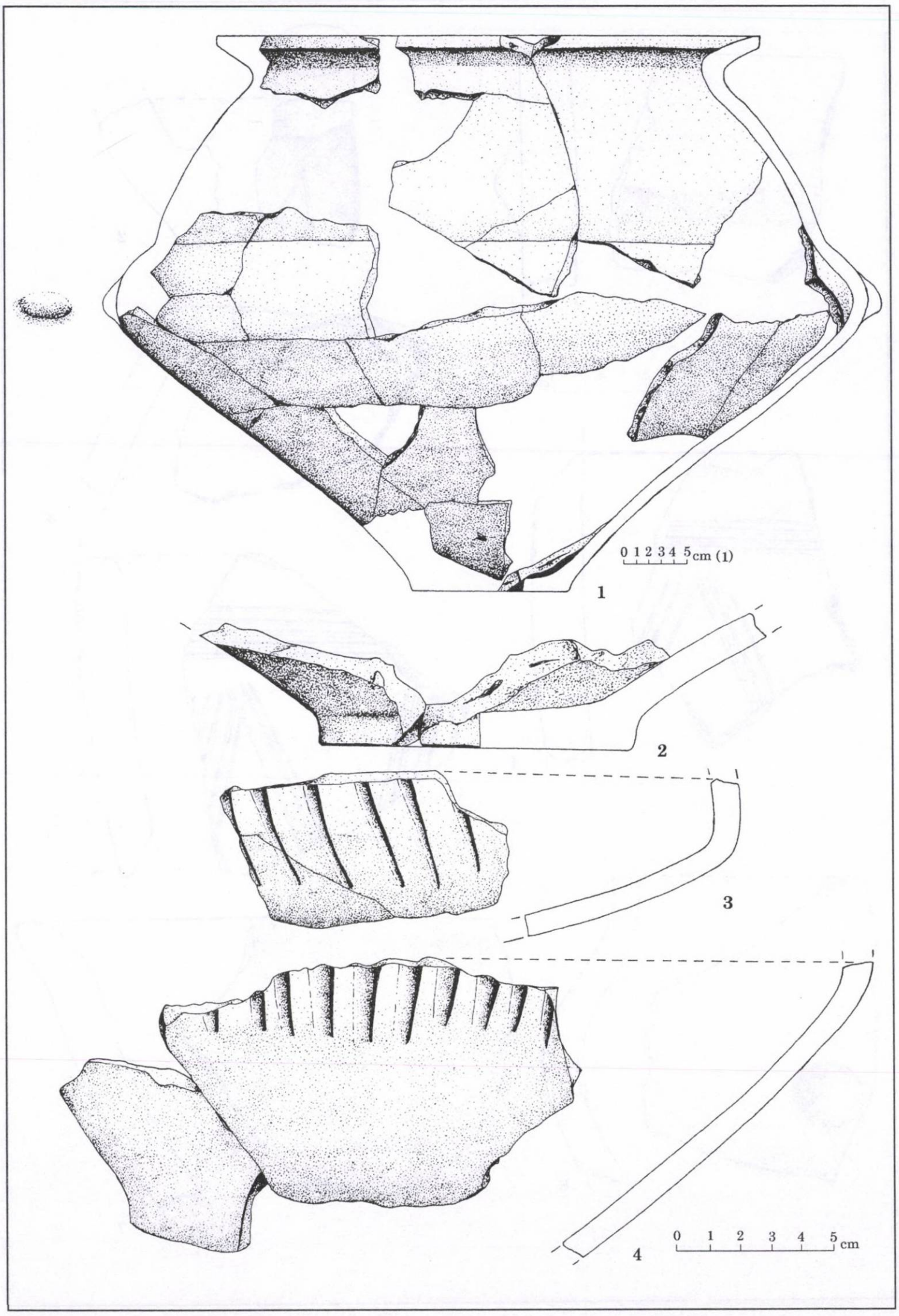
Fig. 2 - Ground-plan of the excavations at Sebeş-Podul Pripocului from 1966-1967 (drawing processed in accordance with the sketches of the journal written by I. Al. Aldea)



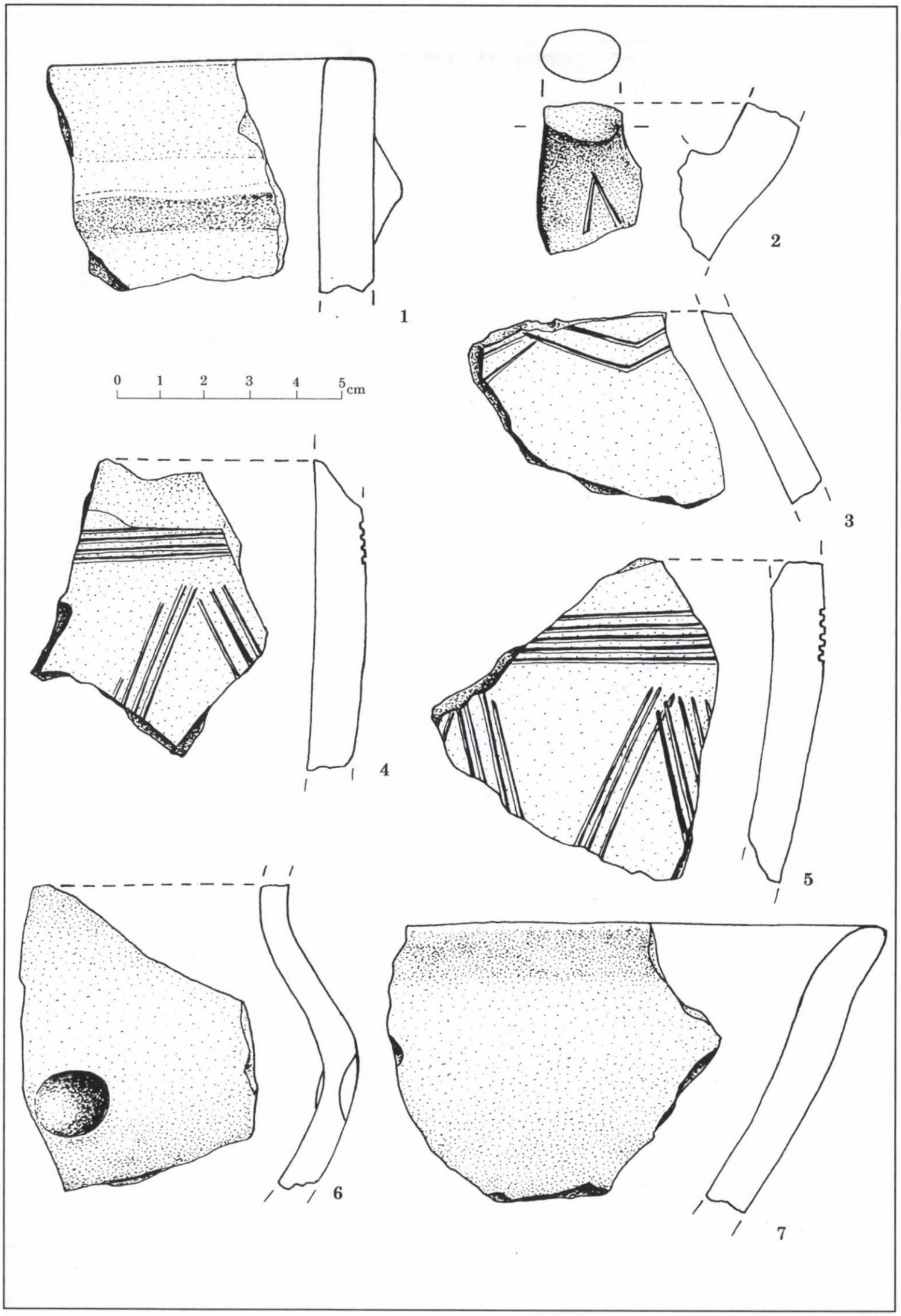
Pl. 1 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (Ha A)–feature A (excavations by K. Horedt)



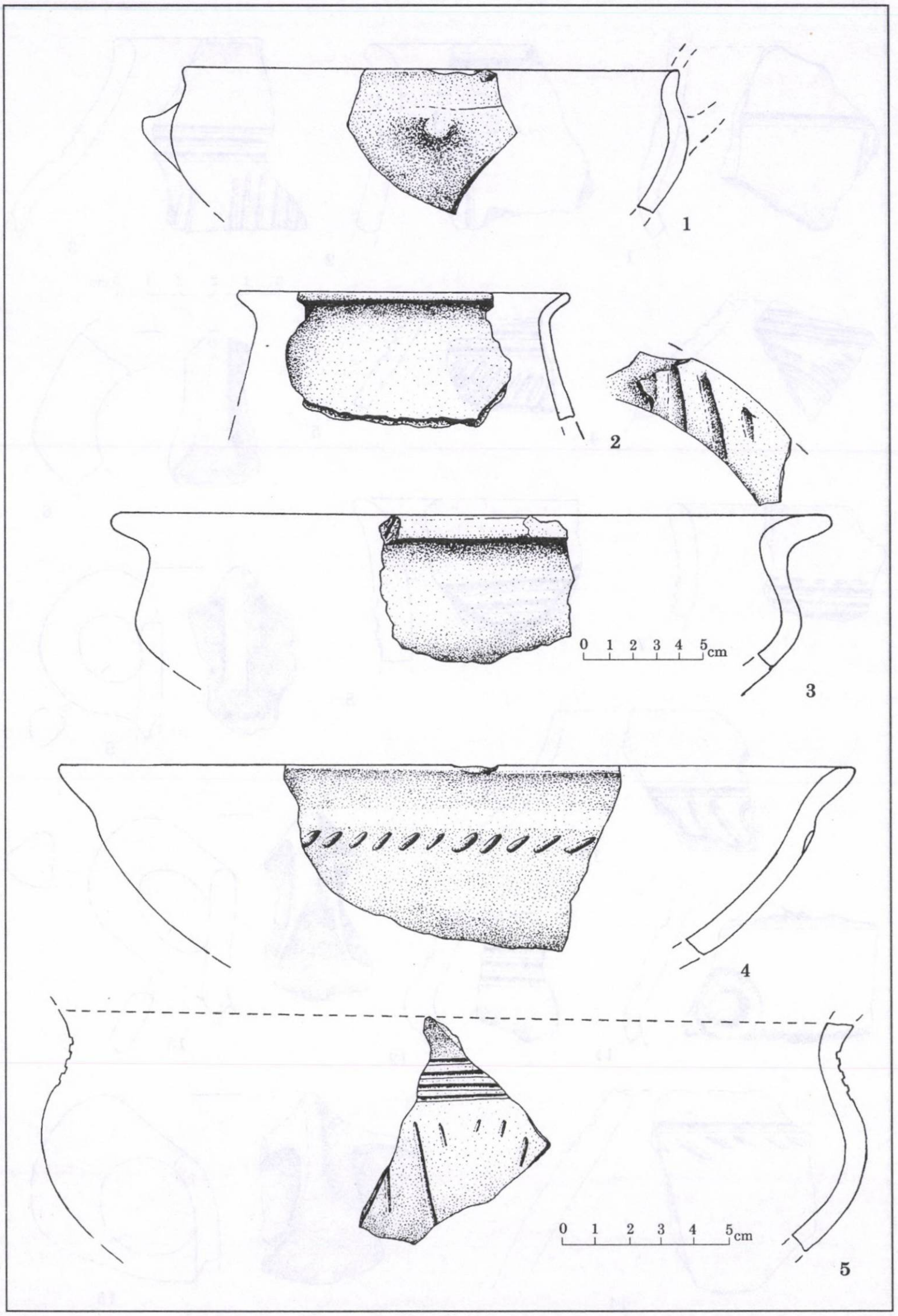
Pl. 2 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Pottery (1-6, 8-9) and bronze needle (7) of the Late Bronze Age (Ha A)–feature A (excavations by K. Horedt) (7- by Horedt et al. 1967)



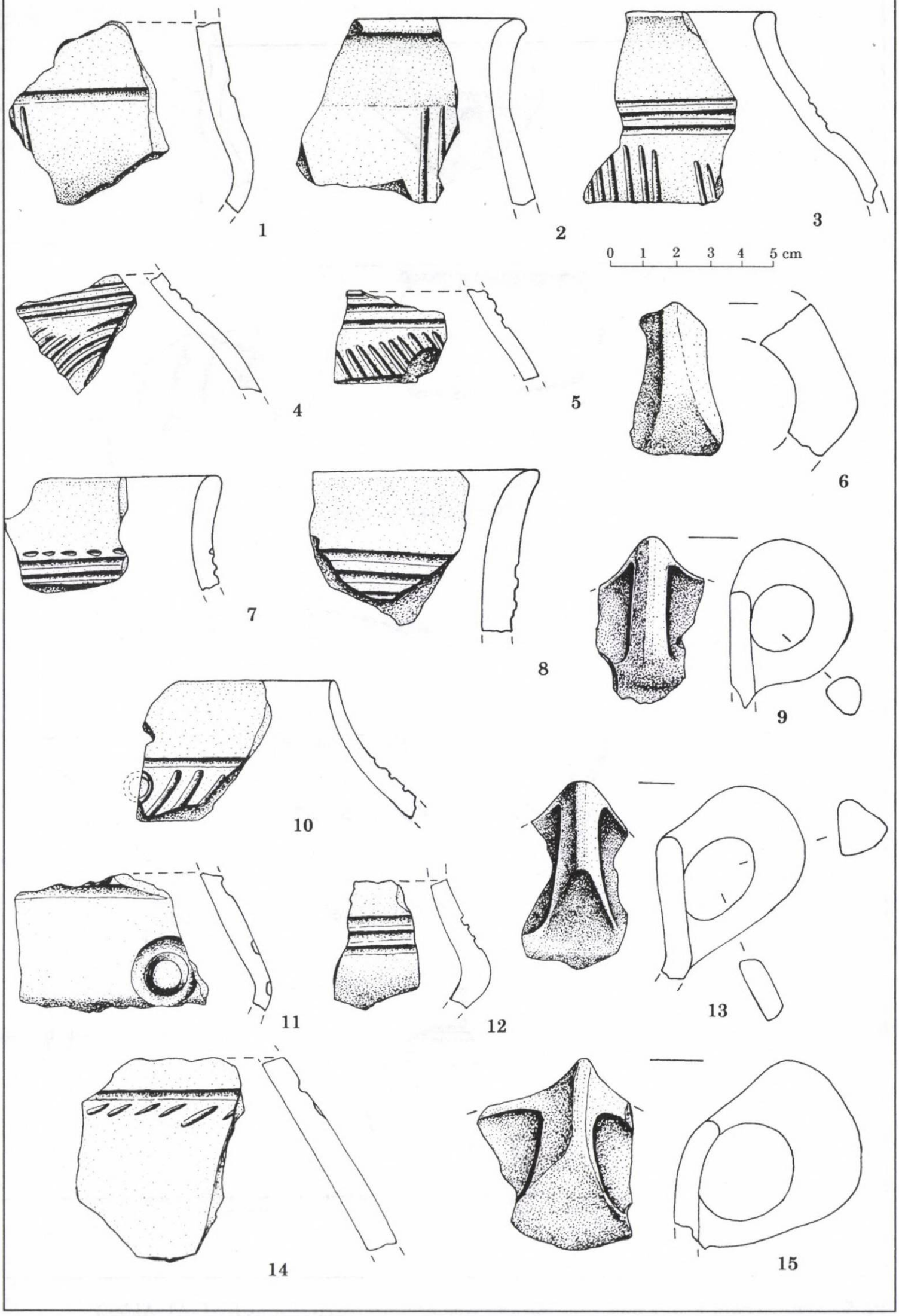
Pl. 3 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (Ha A)–feature B (excavations by K. Horedt)



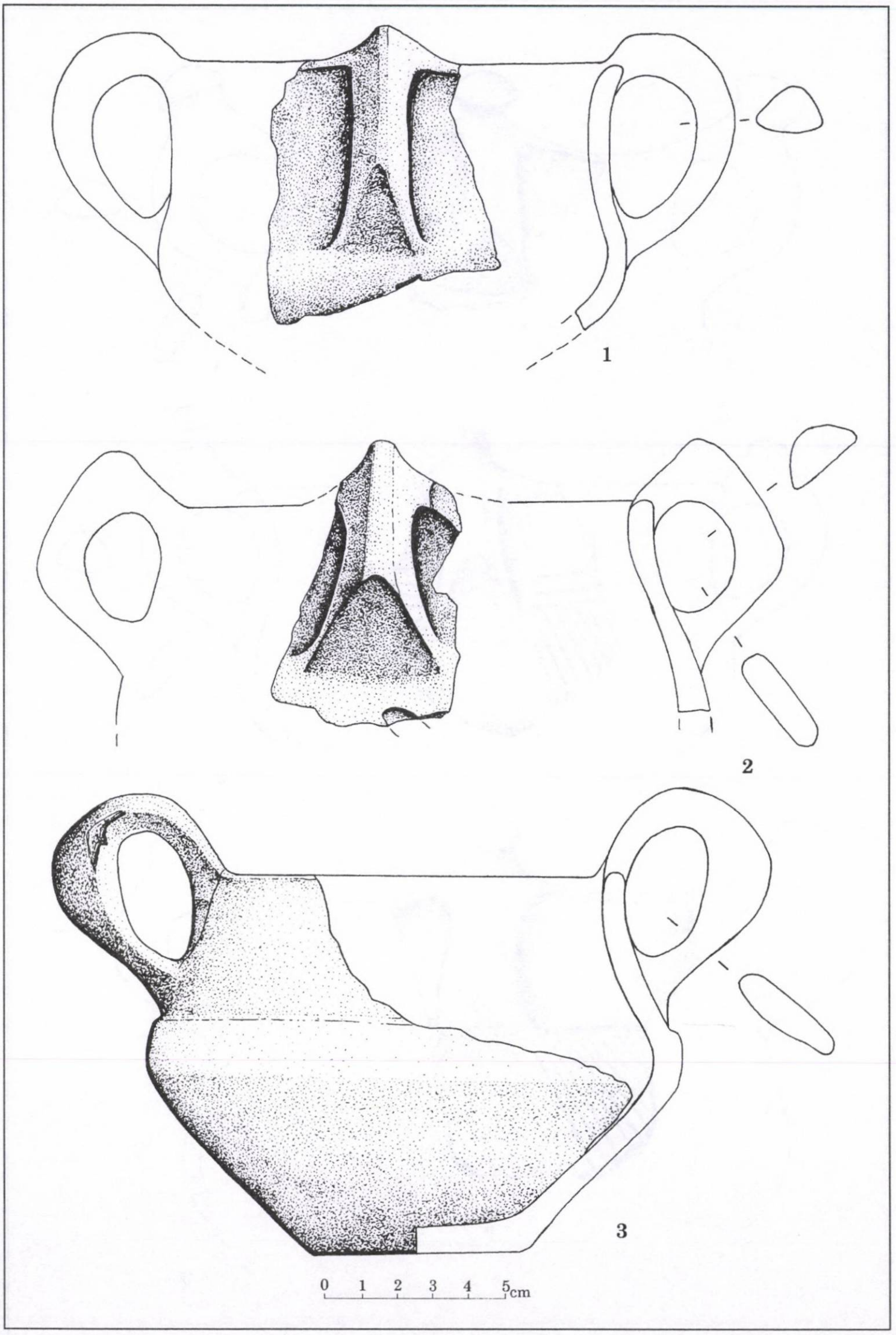
Pl. 4 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



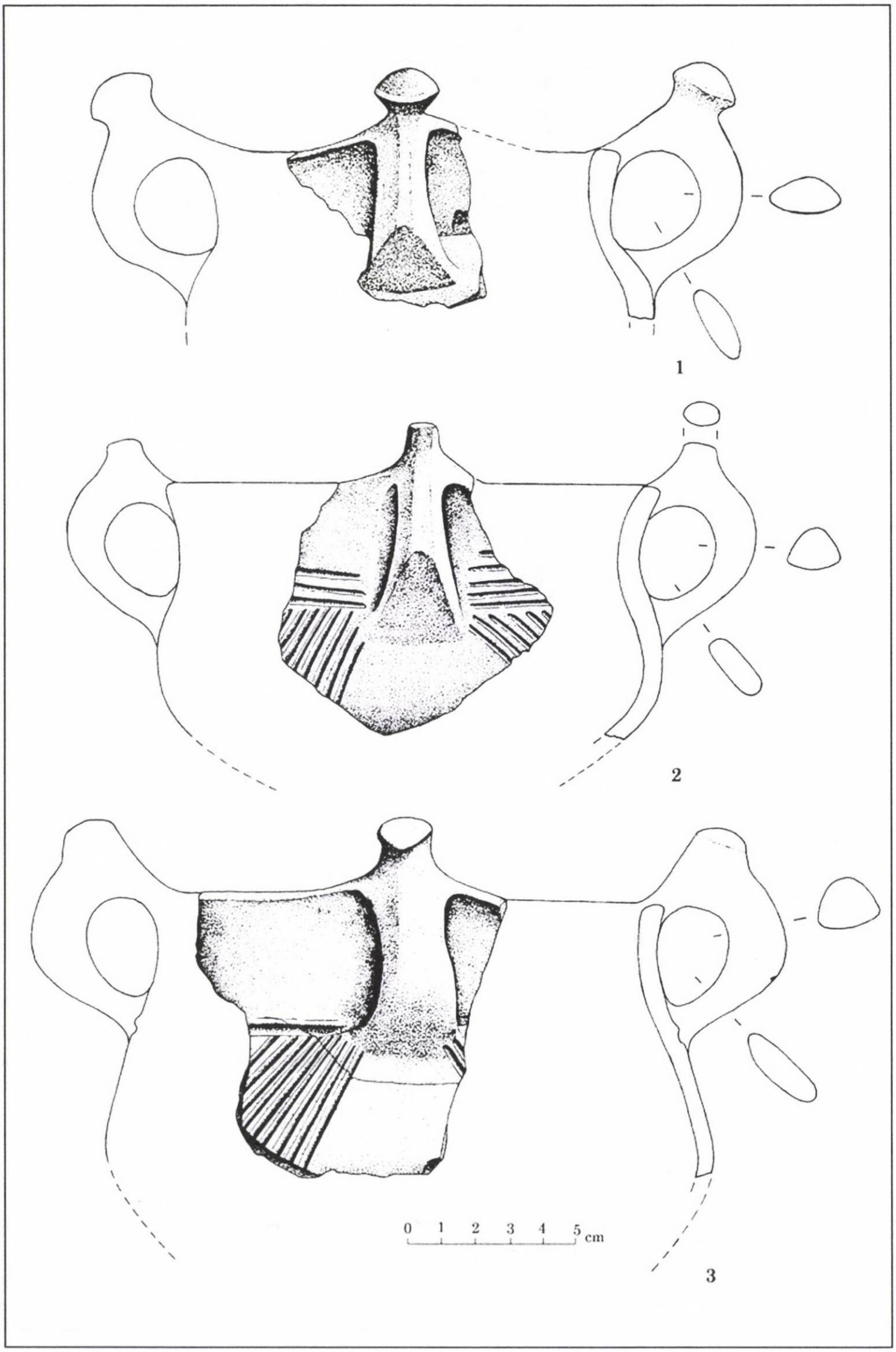
Pl. 5 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



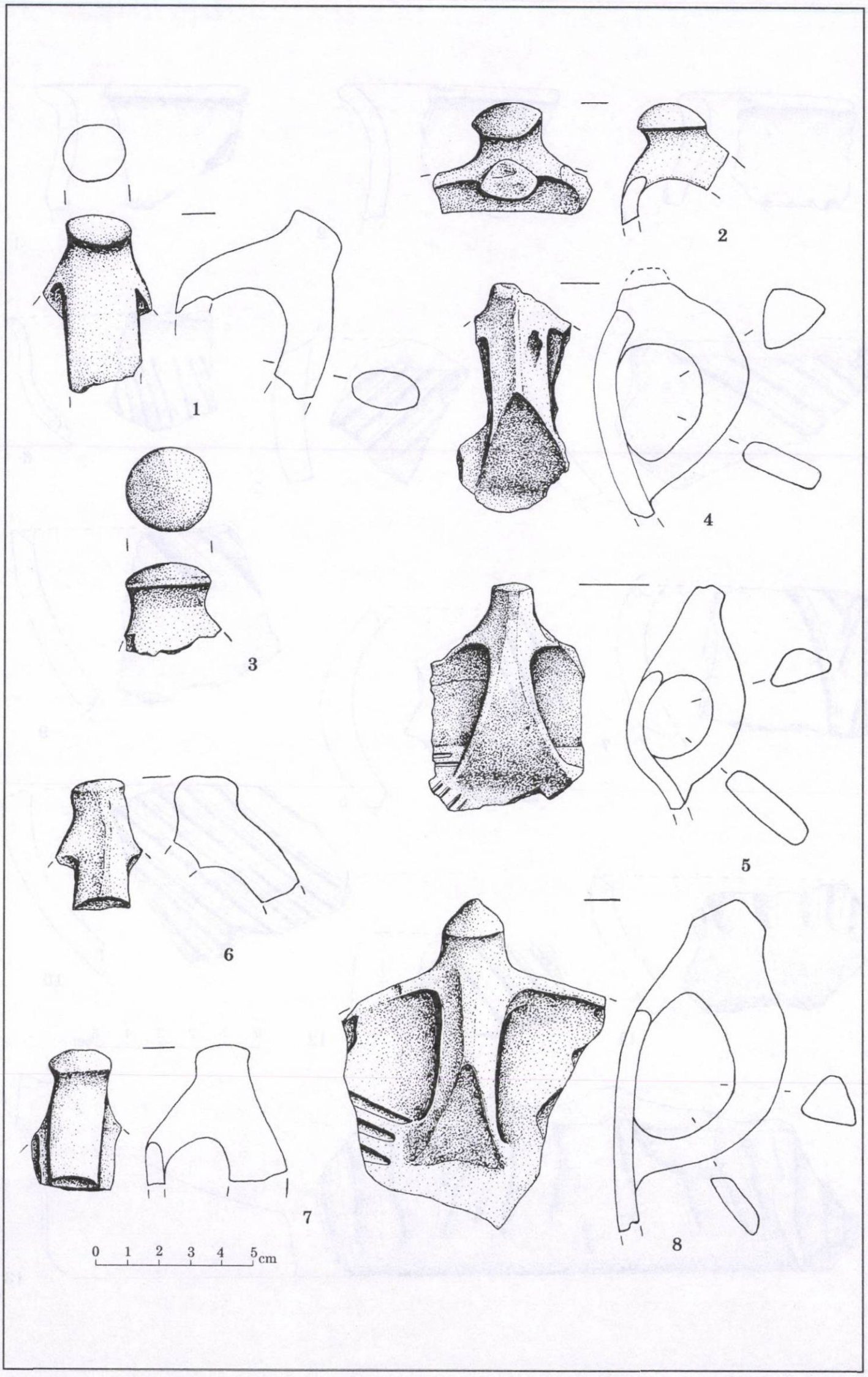
Pl. 6 - Sebeş-Podul Pripoculụi. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



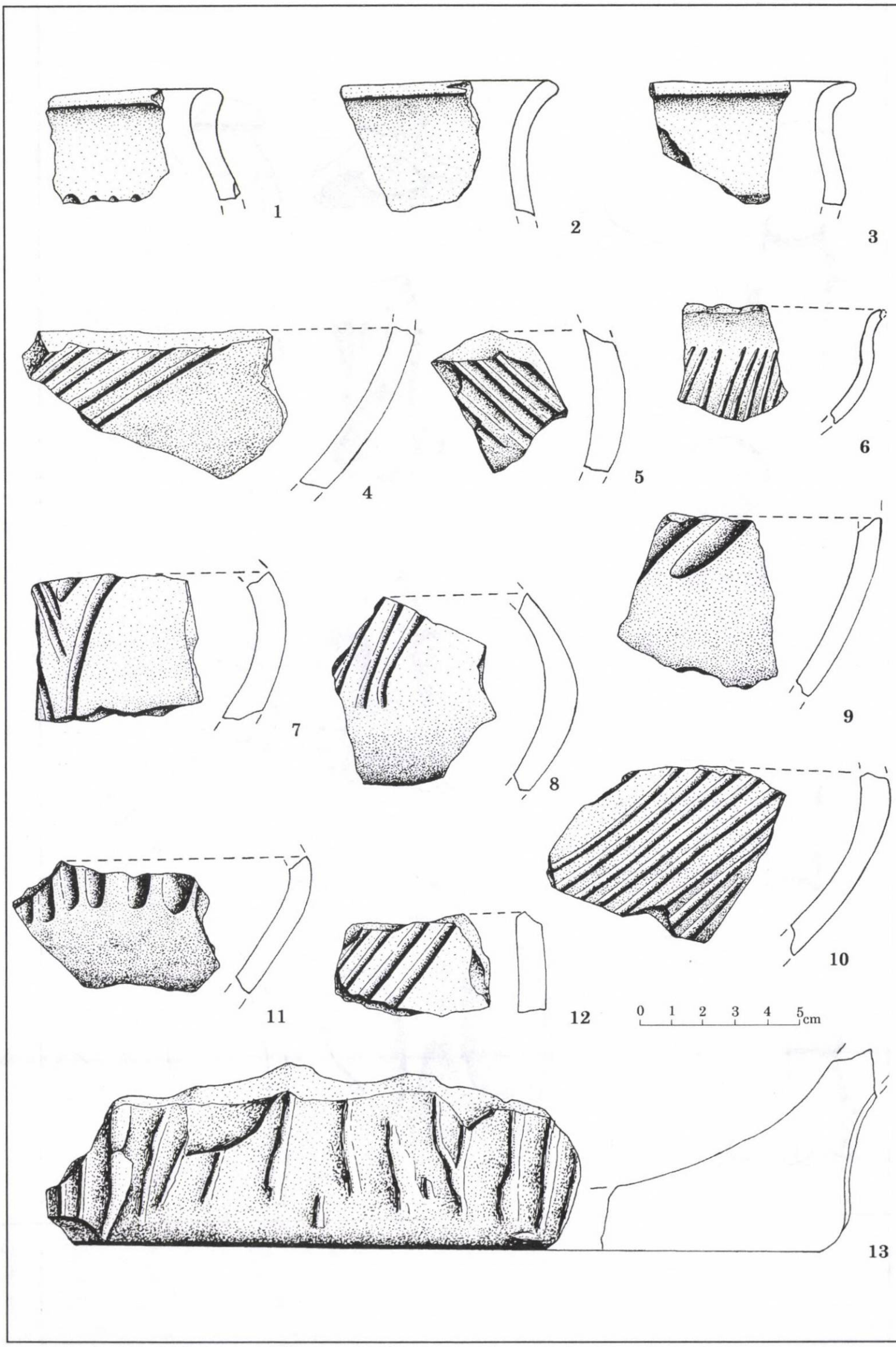
Pl. 7 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (1-2) (excavations by I. Al. Aldea); Place unknown (3)



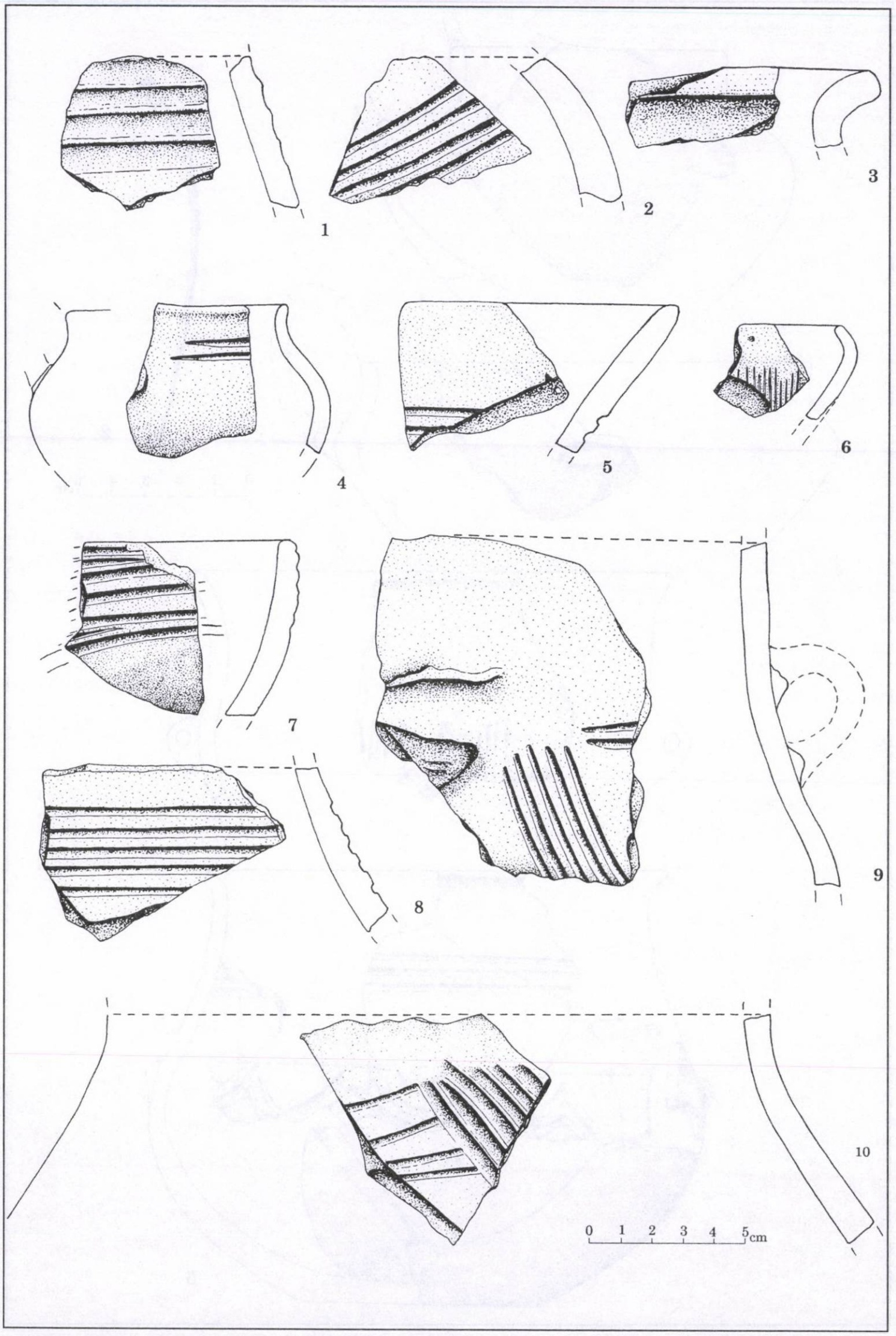
Pl. 8 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



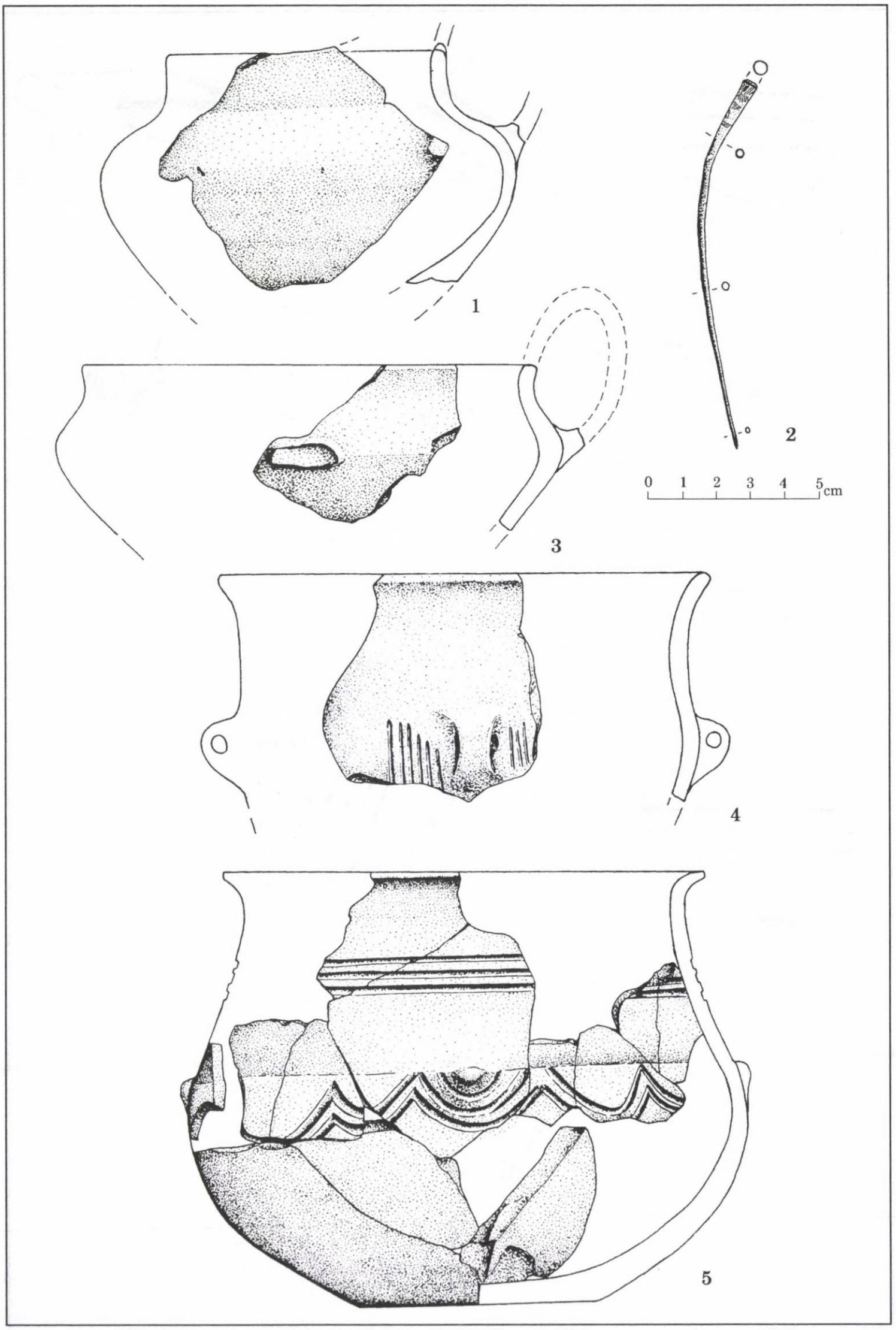
Pl. 9 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



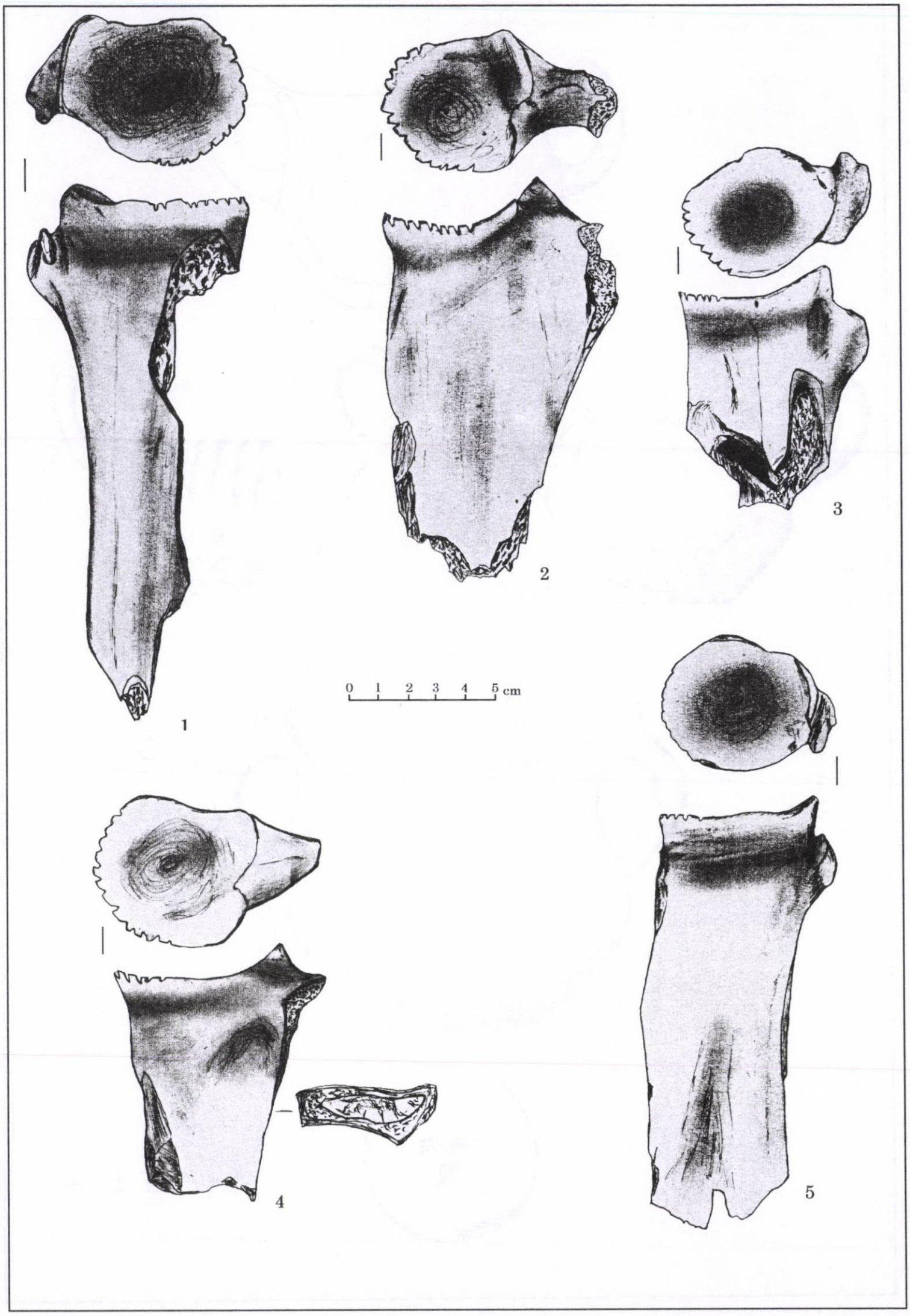
Pl. 10 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



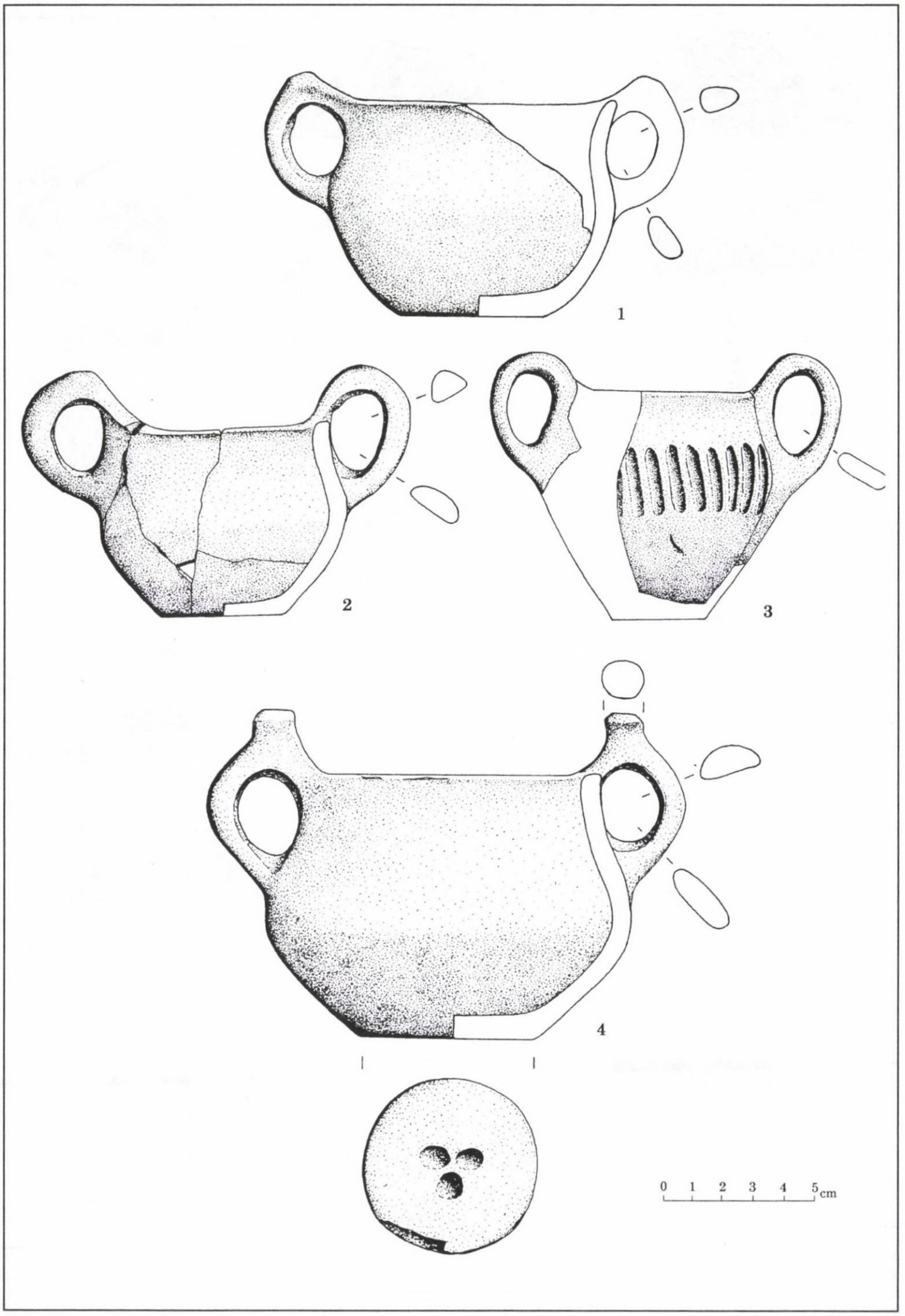
Pl. 11 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age pottery (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



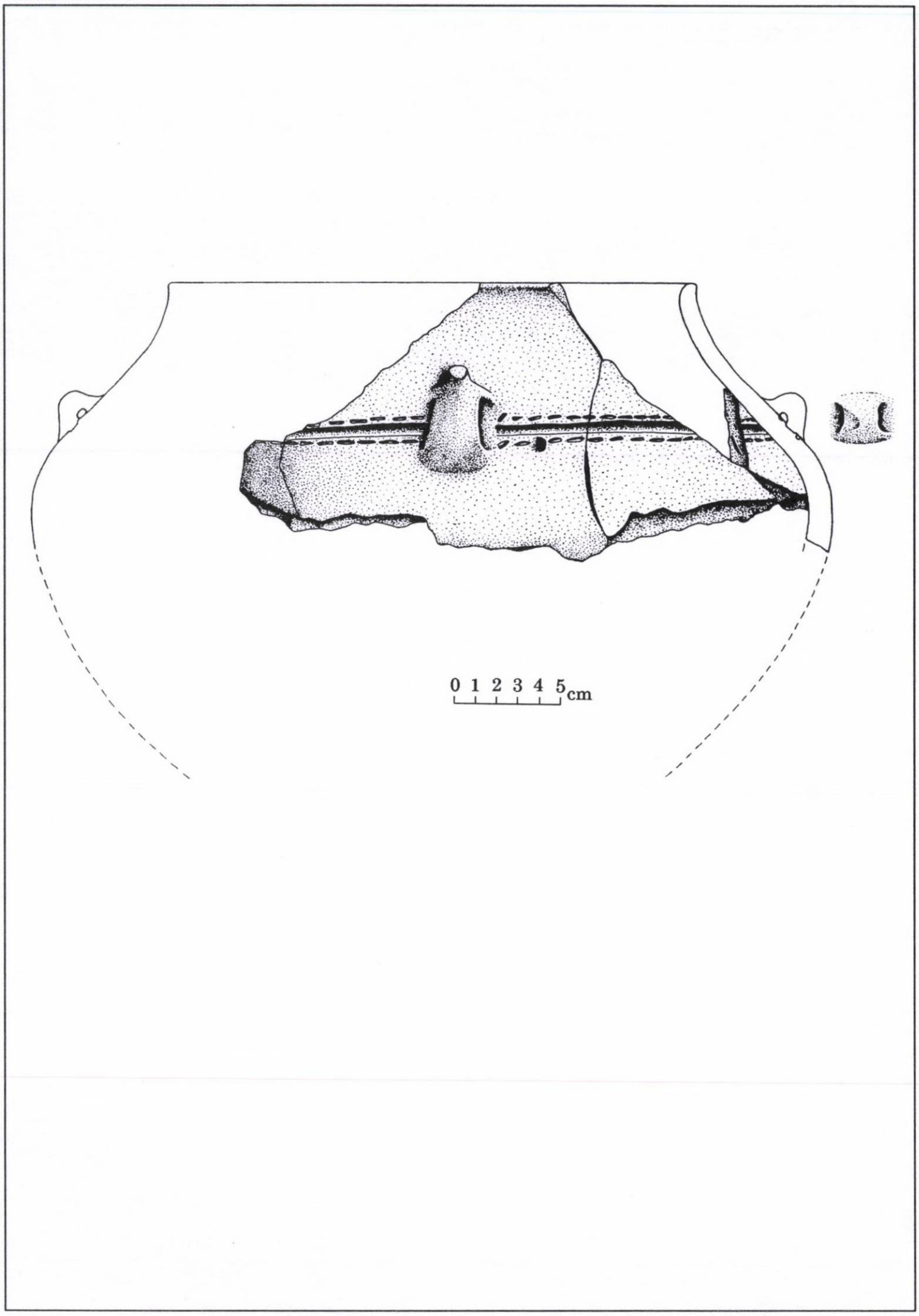
Pl. 12 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Pottery (1, 3-4) and bronze needle (2) of the Late Bronze Age; Sebeş-Dealul de Lut. Late Bronze Age pottery vessel (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



Pl. 13 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Crested shoulder blade of the Late Bronze Age (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)



Pl. 14 - Late Bronze Age pottery: Petreşti (3); discovery places uncertain (1-2, 4)



Pl. 15 - Sebeş-Podul Pripocului. Late Bronze Age vessel (excavations by I. Al. Aldea)

Zur Chronologie der späten Bronzezeit und der älteren Hallstattperiode im nord-östlichen Karpatenraum
Die Radiokarbon-Datierung der Gáva-Holihrady Siedlung von Siret (Bukowina)

Attila László

Eines der Ergebnisse der späten Vorgeschichte gewidmeten archäologischen Untersuchungen der letzten Jahrzehnte in den Aussengegenden der Nordostkarpaten war die Identifizierung der Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur im oberen Dnestr- und Pruth Becken, zuerst in den subkarpatischen Zonen der heutigen Ukraine und dann auch in Nordostmoldau, nämlich in der Hochebene von Suceava. Die Bedeutung dieser Kultur lag, unter anderen, in der Vermittlung der Kulturgüter in der Richtung Westen-Osten, zwischen Mitteleuropa (Karpatenbecken) und der nordwestlichen pontischen Waldsteppe und Steppe. Von der Oberen Theissgegend her verbreitet, konnte die Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur von anderen Kulturen mit kannelierter Keramik des aussenkarpatischen Raumes (Corlăteni-Chişinău-Kultur, zum Beispiel) abgegrenzt werden, die aus Banat stammen und sich nach Osten wahrscheinlich über den zwischen den Südkarpaten und Donau liegenden Flurgang verbreiten[1].

Angefangen mit dem Ansatz von Amália Mozsolics (1957) bis heute, bildete der Ursprung, die Periodisierung und die Chronologie der Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur den Gegenstand zahlreicher Studien. Ohne darauf einzugehen, soll hier erwähnt werden, dass auf Grund der stratigraphischen Angaben sowie auf Basis der Typochronologie in der Entwicklung der Kultur zwei (Tibor Kemenczei) oder drei Phasen (Christopher F. E. Pare), einschließlich der von manchen Forschern (Gábor V. Szabó) als Proto- oder Pre-Gáva bezeichneten Periode, unterscheidet wurden[2]. Diese Phasen wurden mit dem die BzD/HaA1-HaB3/C-Etappen umfassenden Zeitraum des mitteleuropäischen Systems synchronisiert, mit der Präzisierung, dass die Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur während ihrer letzten Entwicklungsphase nur in den östlichen und nordöstlichen Regionen ihres Verbreitungsgebietes überleben wird, wobei die Ungarische Tiefebene (Alföld) in jener Zeit von einer „vorskythischen" Bevölkerung besetzt war. Abhängig von den absolut-chronologischen Werten, die den Bz D–Ha A-B Phasen zugeschriebenen werden, wurde die Entstehungs- und Bestehensperiode der Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur zwischen den 13/12. und 8/7. Jahrhunderten v. Chr. datiert.

Die stratigraphischen Angaben, vornehmlich die Schichtenaufeinanderfolge der Siedlung von Mahala, bei Czernowitz (Černivci, Cernăuţi), auf dem Oberlauf des Pruthflusses, zeigen deutlich, dass die Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur in den nordöstlichen aussenkarpatischen Gebieten der Noua-Kultur (Mahala II) nachfolgt und dass wenigstens zwei Phasen (Mahala III und IV) in ihrem Verlauf unterscheidet werden können[3]. Die typochronologischen Daten im Auge behaltend, stimmen diese zwei Phasen im großen und ganzen den II-III. Phasen der allgemeinen (z.B. von C.F.E. Pare vorgeschlagenen) Periodisierung der Kultur überein, und wurden mit den Etappen Ha A1/A2–B/C des mitteleuropäischen Systems synchronisiert. In den Termini der absoluten Chronologie, wurde die Erscheinung dieser Kultur am Aussenfuss der Nordostkarpaten im 11. Jahrhundert (und teilweise sogar im 12. Jh.) datiert, indem die Entwicklung dieser Kultur in weniger deutlichen Umständen, wohl im 8. (7. ?) Jh. v. Chr. abschloss[4]. Die intensiver untersuchten Fundorten aus der nordwestlichen Moldau (die Siedlungen von Grăniceşti und Siret, die Nekropole von Volovăţ) wurden der früheren Phase der Kultur beigemessen. Die spätere Phase ist durch die Urnenbrandgräber von Cucorăni dargestellt[5].

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[1] Siehe Smirnova 1974; 1978; 1990; 1990a; László 1994; 2003; Leviţki 1994; 2003, mit weiterer Literatur.
[2] Kemenczei 1982; 1982a; 1984, 58-96, Tabelle S. 96 (Chronologische Übersicht);Pare 1998, 406-422; Szabó 1996; 2004; 2005/2007.
[3] Smirnova 1978.
[4] Smirnova 1978 (einschliesslich Tabelle, S. 68); László 1994, 91-95, 156-163, 194-197, 208-211; Pare 1998, 406-422 und Tabelle 7.
[5] László 1994, 93-95, 195-197.

Die oben angeführten Bezüge der absoluten Chronologie fussen sich gewöhnlich auf die Übertragung, von anhand einiger Metallgegenstands- und Keramik Typen, der für die mitteleuropäische Urnenfelderzeit festgesetzten Datirungen, die sich ihrerseits, durch *cross dating*, auf die ägäische Chronologie und letztlich auf die ägyptische historische Chronologie gründen. Die Unvollkommenheiten der letzten, denen die aus dem mehrgliedrigen Verbindungssystem herauskommenden Fehler hinzukommen, lagen den Mängeln und Ungewissheiten der absoluten Chronologie der europäischen Bronzezeit, einschließlich der Urnenfelderzeit, zugrunde, die uns vornehmlich hier interessiert.

In den letzten Jahrzehnten hat man die Ergänzung der Daten der "traditionellen" absoluten Chronologie mit den durch die Radiokarbonmethode erhaltenen Datierungen versucht. Leider gibt es für die Spätbronzezeit und besonders für die Urnenfelderzeit sehr wenige Datierungen und auch diese sind nicht immer guter Qualität oder wurden nicht entsprechend, d. h. mit sämtlichen erforderlichen Begleitinformationen veröffentlicht. Was die Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur anbelangt, wurden, nach unseren Kenntnissen, noch keine Radiokarbon-Datierungen veröffentlicht. So meinen wir, dass die Präsentierung und das Kommentar der vier Datierungen, die für die neben dem Städtchen Siret liegende Siedlung erhalten wurden, von Vorteil sein können. Der am rechten Ufer des oberen Sereth-Flusses, in der Nähe der aktuellen Grenze zwischen Rumänien und Ukraine, nämlich ca. 35 km südlich weit von der Siedlung von Mahala liegende Fundort wurde durch systematische Ausgrabungen zwischen 1992 und 2006 untersucht. Die Funde und Befunde befinden sich nun in einer Bearbeitungsetappe für die Veröffentlichung. Angesichts der Typologie der Keramik, ähnlich der in der Siedlung von Grăniceşti entdeckte Keramik, wurde der Fundort von Siret der älteren Phase der Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur zugeschrieben und in den Grenzen der Phase Ha A datiert. Diese Festlegung kann sich auch auf eine Gussform aus der Siedlung von Siret stützen, die zum Giessen der Tüllenbeile vom siebenbürgischen Typ diente und für die Ha A1 Phase charakteristisch ist[6]. Während der Ausgrabungen hat der Verfasser dieser Zeilen mehrere Holzkohlenproben entnommen, von denen zehn Stück dem Labor aus Berlin übergegeben wurden. Von diesen wurden vier Proben dank der Sorgfalt des Herrn Dr. Jochen Görsdorf, des Laborleiters und dem Wohlwollen des Herrn Prof. Dr. Svend Hansen, des Direktors der Eurasien Abteilung des DAI gemessen[7].

Die konventionellen ^{14}C Alter, mit 1 σ (68.2%) Vertrauensbereich, und die Ergebnisse der Kalibrierung mithilfe der Kurve IntCal04 und des Programms OxCalv3.10, mit 1 σ (68.2%) und 2 σ (95.4 %) Vertrauensbereich und mit verschiedenen Wahrscheinlichkeiten innerhalb der einzelnen Daten, werden in der Tabelle 1. und in dem Anhang 1-3 dargestellt. (Siehe auch Tabelle 2, No. 42-46.)

Man kann vor allem feststellen, dass die Datierungen in guter Übereinstimmung miteinander sind. Ihre Abstufung in bestimmten Zeitspannen natürlich ist, wenn wir die Tatsache ins Auge fassen, dass diese Daten nicht irgendein „historisches" Ereignis, sondern die sukzessive Abschneidung der Bäume von den Bewohnern der Siedlung im Laufe deren Existenz wiederspiegeln.

Dann kann man auf dem ersten Blick bemerken, dass diese Daten weit höher in Unterschied zu den auf Basis der traditionellen Chronologie erwarteten Daten sind. In einem Fehlerbereich von 1 σ liegt die ganze, von den vier Proben dargestellte Zeitspanne zwischen 1400-1020 Cal BC, und im Bereich von 2 σ zwischen 1440-930 Cal BC. Innerhalb dieser Zeitspannen giebt es kürzere Zwischenräume eines kleineren oder grösseren Wahrscheinlichkeitsgrades, worauf wir jetzt nicht weiter eingehen. Es ist aber der rechte Augenblick, auf eine Tatsache aufmerksam zu machen, die oft von denen, die auf die Radiokarbondatierungen berufen, ausser Betracht gelassen wurde, und zwar, dass die ^{14}C

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[6] Ursulescu et al. 1986-1987; László 1994, 94, fig. 50-52 (die Gussform: fig. 50/2-3); Mareş et al. 2008, mit Forschungsgeschichte und Literatur.

[7] Görsdorf 2006, 2007 und briefliche Information von J. Görsdorf (19. 9. 2006, 26. 1. 2007), siehe *Anhang*.

Zeitbestimmungen keine wahrhaftige Datierungen, sondern ein spezifisches, der komplexen statistischen Variabilität unterworfenes Zeitmass sind[8] .

No.	No. der Probe	Laboratoriums-nummer	Konventionelle ^{14}C – Alter BP	Korrigierte Datierungen Cal BC	
				1σ (68.2 %)	2σ (95.4 %)
1	5	Bln-5788	3056 ± 50	1400 - 1260	1440 – 1190 (94.3 %) 1150 – 1130 (1.1 %)
2	3	Bln-5786	3006 ± 37	1370 – 1350 (5.1 %) 1320 – 1190 (61.3 %) 1140 – 1130 (1.8 %)	1390 – 1120
3	8	Bln-5790	2987 ± 49	1310 – 1120	1390 – 1050
4	7	Bln-5789	2929 ± 65	1260 – 1230 (7.0 %) 1220 – 1020 (61.2 %)	1380 – 1340 (1.8 %) 1320 – 970 (91.5 %) 960 – 930 (2.1 %)
Die Kombinierte Datirerung der vier Proben					
5	-	-	3003 ±24	1310 – 1210	1380 – 1340 (7.3 %) 1320 – 1120 (88.1 %)

Tabelle 1. Datierungsergebnisse der Proben 5, 3, 8 und 7 von Siret und der kombinierten Datierung der vier Proben.

Im Bereich 1 σ der kalibrierten Daten bleibend, stellen wir fest, dass alle vier Datierungen ungefähr 1250 Cal BC zu treffen sind, so dass sich die Datierungen 1-3 im Zwischenraum ca. 1310-1250 Cal BC und die Datierungen 2-4 im Zwischenraum ca. 1250-1130 Cal BC decken. Aufgrund der beiden Zwischenräume, die sich zwischen 1310-1130 cal BC breiten, können wir schätzen, dass die Funktionsperiode der Siedlung von Siret am wahrscheinlichsten in den Grenzen der 13-12. Jh. Cal BC datiert sein kann. Diese Schlussfolgerung ist gefestigt auch von der kombinierten Datierung der vier Proben, die über das Computerprogramm im Labor aus Berlin vorgenommen wurde und das folgende Resultat ergab (Tabelle 1, No. 5, Anhang 3). Dem konventionellen Datum 3003 ± 24 BP im Bereich 1 σ entspricht der Zwischenraum 1310-1210 Cal BC, und im Bereich 2 σ stimmen die Zwischenräume 1380-1340 (7.3%) und 1320-1120 Cal BC (88.1%) überein. Aufgrund dieses Verfahrens, dem mathematische Methoden zugrunde liegen, entspricht die wahrscheinlichste Radiokarbondatierung der Siedlung von Siret dem Intervall zwischen Ende des 14. Jh. und Ende des 12. Jh. Cal BC. Auch diese beschränktere Datierung liegt höher als die, aufgrund der traditionellen, „historischen" Chronologie für die Hallstatt A Periode erwarteten Datierungen (etwa 12-11. Jh. v. Chr.), was abermals die bestehende Diskrepanz zwischen den beiden chronologischen Systemen demonstriert.

Die Diskrepanz von ca. 100-200 Jahren zwischen den kalibrierten Radiokarbondatierungen und die Datierungen, die aufgrund astronomischen und historischen Angaben für das Alte Ägypten sowie für die ägäische späte Bronzezeit einkalkuliert wurden, ist seit längerer Zeit bekannt, ohne dass das Dilemma befriedigend beantworten können, ob Fehler in der Methodologie der Radiokarbondatierungen bestehen oder die Angaben der historischen Chronologie des Nahen Ostens nicht richtig eingesetzt wurden[9]. Bis zur Klärung dieser Probleme[10], für die europäische Spätbronzezeit, ist die abgesonderte Analyse zum einen der aus dem System der archäologisch-historischen Kontakte resultierende Daten, und zum anderen der Radiokarbondatierungen zu empfehlen.

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[8] Hassan–Robinson 1987, 130; siehe auch *Antiquity* 61. No. 231, March 1987, 97 (Editorial of Ch. Chippindale).
[9] Siehe z.B. Müller 2005, 209.
[10] Für manche Forschungsprojekte, die noch im Laufe sind, siehe z.B. Bietak 2000/2003/2007; Shortland et al. 2008.

Bei einem solchen Verfahren werden auch die für die Siedlung von Siret erhaltenen Datierungen noch glaubenswert und akzeptabler sein, denn, wie beispielweise Anthony F. Harding bemerkte, die für die Urnenfelderzeit verfügbaren Radiokarbondatierungen und Dendrodaten sichtbar höher als die von H. Müller-Karpe aufgrund der „historischen" Chronologie vorgeschlagenen Daten ligen. Gemäß den vorsichtigen Schätzungen von Harding, der auch einige Überlappungen in der Zeit in Sicht hat, kann Bz D zwischen 1400-1200, Ha A1-A2 zwischen 1250-1050, und Ha B1-B3 zwischen 1100-750 cal BC datiert werden[11].

Die spärlichen Radiokarbondatierungen für die Urnenfelderzeit, über die wir aus dem Karpatenbecken verfügen, stimmen mit den erhaltenen Daten für die Siedlung von Siret überein (siehe Tabelle 2). Wir ziehen in diesem Zusammenhang vor allem die Datierung der Siedlung (Fundort M3/29) von Polgár, am Theiss, in Nordost-Ungarn, in Betracht. Aufgrund der Keramik, wurde die Siedlung ans Ende der Bz D und in die Ha A1 Phase datiert und der „Pre-Gáva-Periode" der Mittleren Theissgegend zugeordnet. Die ^{14}C-Alterbestimmung des Holzmaterials der Verschalung eines Brunnens, der wahrscheinlich an der Wende der Bz D-zur Ha A1 Periode gebaut wurde, ist 3070 ± 40 BP bzw. 1410–1300 Cal BC (mit 1 σ Vertrauensbereich) und 1431–1210 Cal BC (im Bereich von 2 σ)[12]. Man kann bemerken, dass diese etwas frühere Datierung, sowohl relativ- als auch absolutchronologisch, sehr gut zur Datenserie von Siret passt. Der gleiche Sachverhalt gilt auch für die nordwest-transdanubische, späthügelgräber-frühurnenfelderzeitliche, der Bz D-Ha A1 Periode zugerechnete tellartige Kleinsiedlung von Németbánya. Die vier Radiokarbonalterbestimmungen liegen im Zeitraum 3082 ± 41–2992 ± 55 BP, bzw. 1423–1024 Cal BC (im Bereich von 2 σ)[13]. Für die ebenfalls im nordwestlichen Transdanubien liegende und der Bz D –Ha A1 Periode angehörende Siedlung von Börcs wurden vier nahe liegende ^{14}C-Alterbestimmungen durchgeführt. Diese Datierungen bestimmen den Fundort auf den Zeitraum 3053 ± 40 –2919 ± 54 BP, bzw. um 1294-1075 Cal BC[14]. Weniger aufschlussreich sind die drei, zwischen 3155 ± 55 und 3090 ± 35 BP, bzw. 1520 und 1330 Cal BC liegenden ^{14}C-Datierungen von Gomolava (Sirmien), die sich auf das Kulturmilieu Belegiš der Bz D –Ha A Periode zu beziehen scheinen[15]. Betreffs der siebenbürgischen Fundorte, könnte in diesem Zusammenhang die Radiokarbondatierung der Salzherstellung von Valea Florilor, Bez. Cluj (3000 ± 80 BP, 1380-1100 Cal BC im Bereich von 1 σ, 1420-990 Cal BC im Bereich von 2 σ)[16] eine Gleichzeitigkeit mit der früheren nordostkarpatischen Gáva-Holihrady Kultur und mit den entsprechenden transsylvanischen Kulturerscheinungen anzeigen. Die etwas spätere ^{14}C Datierung der Salzherstelleung von Băile Figa, Bez. Bistriţa-Năsăud (2870 ± 20 BP, 1110-1000 Cal BC im Bereich von 1 σ, 1130-970

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[11] Harding 2004, 14-18.

[12] Szabó 2005/2007, 154-158, 164-165. Im Bereich von 2σ gibt es zwei Zeitspannen: 1431-1250 Cal BC (92.9%) und 1240-1210 Cal BC (2.5%). Die Probe wurde im C-14 Labor von Debrecen gemesst (Deb-9674). Die konventionelle ^{14}C-Alter wurde mithilfe des Programms Oxcalv3.10 kalibriert. Siehe S. 158, Fussnote 18.

[13] Ilon 1996, 153-157. Die Datierungen sind die folgende (siehe S. 153 und Abb. 31):

1. Deb-3434, 2992 ± 55 BP, 1384 (1211) 1024 BC
2. Deb-3435, 3082 ± 41 BP, 1423 (1362, 1350) 1216 BC
3. Deb 3437, 3051 ± 44 BP, 1408 (1292) 1129 BC
4. Deb-3760, 3039 ± 48 BP, 1408 (1279)1108 BC

[14] Figler 1996, 11-12. Diese Datierungen wurden folgendermassen bekanntgeben:

Deb-3141: 3053 ± 40 BP, 1294 BC
Deb-3001: 2997 ± 56 BP, 1216 BC
Deb-3200: 2982 ± 54 BP, 1191 BC
Deb-3060: 2919 ± 54 BP, 1075 BC

[15] Waterbolk 1988. Die drei ^{14}C-Datierungen sind die folgende: GrN-7370: 3155 ± 55 BP; GrN-13096: 3090 ± 35 BP; GrN-13098: 3095 ± 35 BP (siehe S. 121, Beilage I). Nach der Meinung des Verfassers, liegen diese Datierungen auf der Eichkurve bei etwa 1520/1430–1400/1300 Cal BC. Zwei der drei Proben wurden ursprünglich dem späten Äneolithikum (der Kostolac-Gruppe) zugerechnet, aber alle drei Proben gehören wahrscheinlich der spätbronzezeitlichen Belegiš-Stufe an (siehe S. 119. Siehe auch Tasić 1988, 47-53, 55, 57.)

[16] Wollmann–Ciugudean 2005, 100-101. Dieselbe Datierung ("1420-990 v.Chr.") wurde auch von Cavruc et al. 2006, 43-44, erwähnt. In einer anderen Arbeit, wurden die kalibrierte Werte etwas modifiziert: 1380-1120 BC (68.2%) und 1430-1010 BC (95.4%)". Siehe Ciugudean et al. 2006, 49-50, Abb. 10.

Cal BC im Bereich von 2 σ)[17], wie auch die noch unpublizierten Alterbestimmungen der Siedlung von Teleac, Bez. Alba[18], beziehen sich wahrscheinlich auf eine entwickeltere Phase der Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur in Siebenbürgen. Wir können schliesslich auch die für den Tumulus 26 von Lăpuş kürzlich erhaltene ^{14}C-Alterbestimmungen erwähnen, die auf die Lăpuş II-Phase verweisen[19]. Wie auf Grund der relativchronologischen Lage der Lăpuş- und Gáva-Holihrady-Kulturen zu erwarten war, sind die späteren Datierungen der Serie von Lăpuş als parallel mit den früheren Datierungen der Serie von Siret anzusehen.

Man kann bemerken, dass über ihren „absoluten" Chronologiewert hinaus, können die Radiokarbondatierungen auch ein nützliches Mittel für die Festlegung der Zeitverhältnissen zwischen den verschiedenen benachbarten oder weit entfernten Kulturerscheinungen bilden. Wenn wir die erhaltenen Datierungen für die Siedlung von Siret mit den verfügbaren Radiokarbondatenreihen für die Bronzezeit und den Anfang der Eisezeit aus den östlichen aussenkarpatischen Gebieten vergleichen (siehe Tabelle 2), können wir einige interessanten Bemerkungen über die chronologischen und chorologischen Beziehungen zwischen den Kulturen Noua und Gáva-Holihrady machen, ohne hier unsere bei einem anderen Anlaß dargestellten Schlußfolgerungen über die Chronologie der Noua-Kultur wieder aufzunehmen[20]. So stellen wir fest, dass die Datierungen, die für die Siedlung von Siret erhalten wurden (die wir als ähnlich der Siedlung von Mahala III ansehen) sich sehr gut an die früher veröffentlichten Datierungen für die der Noua-Kultur angehörende Schicht Mahala II knüpfen[21]. Angesichts der partiellen Überlappung der zwei C-14 Datierungsreihen, die wir für Mahala II und Siret besitzen, sowie die weiter oben zur Diskussion gestellten Schätzungen in Bezug auf die Wahrscheinlichkeit der Datierungen von Siret, kann man annehmen, dass die Ersetzung der Noua-Kultur durch die Gáva-Holihrady-Kultur in den perikarpatischen Hochlandsgebieten aus dem oberen Pruth- und Dnestr Becken gegen Ende des 14. Jhs Cal BC stattfand. Eine solche Möglichkeit ist auch von zwei älteren für den Fundort von Dnestrovka Luka erhaltenen Datierungen unterstüzt, der von Galina I. Smirnova der Černoles-Kultur zugeschrieben wurde[22]. Gleich ob diese kulturelle Einordnung richtig ist, oder man eher der Belogrudovka-Kultur Rechnung tragen müsste, zeigen die zwei Datierungen (3010 ± 40 BP, bzw. 1340-1170 Cal BC und 2970 ± 40 BP, bzw. 1270-1110 Cal BC), die in guter Übereinstimmung mit den Datierungen der Siedlung von Siret sind, dass gegen Ende des 14. Jhs Cal BC die Noua-Kultur auch im oberen Dnestrbecken, am Rande der Podolischen Hochebene, ihre Existenz abschloß und durch eine andere kulturelle Erscheinung ersetzt wurde.

Andererseits kann man noch bemerken, dass gemäß den verfügbaren Datierungen für den Fundort Odaia (Nordmoldavien)[23], im Gebiet der Waldsteppe zwischen Pruth und mittleren Dnestr, setzt die Noua-Kultur ihre Existenz auch im Laufe der 14. und 12. Jahrhunderte Cal BC fort (und dann wurde sie durch die sogenannte „frühe hallstattischen" Kultur mit kannelierter Keramik des Typs Corlăteni-Chişinău ersetzt).

Eine noch längere Existenzperiode scheint die mit der Noua-Kultur verwandte Coslogeni-Kultur zu haben. Sind die verfügbaren, den Zwischenraum des 14. und des 11. (-10.) Jhs. Cal BC einnehmenden Datierungen für den Fundort Durankulak im Norden

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[17] Ciugudean et al. 2006, 49-50. Im Bereich von 1 σ gibt es zwei Zeitspannen: 1110-1100 BC (4.6%) und 1090-1000 BC (63.6%). Eine andere Publikation erwähnt fünf/zwei (?) Holzproben von Băile Figa die in Groningener Labor analysiert und um 3000 BP, bzw. 1000 v. Chr. datiert wurden. Siehe Cavruc et al. 2006, 44-45.

[18] Nach der freundlichen brieflichen Information von Dr. Horia I. Ciugudean (23 Oktober 2008) liegt der Mittelwert der zwei ^{14}C-Datierungen um 1060-1030 BC. Die beide Proben stammen aus demselben Baumstamm.

[19] Die Datierungen nehmen ungefähr die Jahrhunderte 33-30. BP und 15-13. Cal BC ein. Siehe Metzner-Nebelsick--Kacsó 2008 und in diesem Band. Für die neue Ergebnisse der Forschungen in der Hügelnekropole von Lăpuş siehe auch Metzner-Nebelsick--Kacsó 2009.

[20] László 1993; 2006; 2007.

[21] Smirnova 1972, 29; 1976, 126; 1990a, 9-11; Diskussion: László 1993.

[22] Smirnova 1986; Ignaczak –Ślusarska-Michalik 2003, Table 2, No. 24-25.

[23] Kaiser--Sava 2004, 41; 2006, 146-147, Tab. 1, Abb. 14; siehe auch László 2006, 132.

Dobrudschas (Nordost-Bulgarien) richtig[24], so könnten wir auch die Anwesenheit der Noua-Coslogeni Kulturelemente in den Schichten 14b-12 von Kastanas (Makedonien), die aufgrund Radiokarbondatierungen zwischen den Grenzen des 13. und des 11. Jhs. cal BC datiert wurden, besser erklären[25].

Auf jeden Fall warnen uns die Radiokarbondatierungen, dass die Noua-Coslogeni-Kultur in den unterschiedenen Gegenden des aussenkarpatischen Raumes eine variable Existenzperiode aufwies und in verschiedenen Zeiten durch die sogenannte „frühe hallstattischen" Kultur mit kannelierter Keramik (Gáva-Holihrady, Corlăteni-Chişinău) oder mit ritzverzierter und gestempelter Keramik (Insula Banului, Babadag, Tămăoani, Cozia usw.) ersetzt wurde[26].

Diese kulturelle Änderung wurde in den östlich des Dnestrflusses liegenden Gegenden des nordpontichen Raumes durch das Auftauchen der Kulturphänomene vom Typ Belozerka (in der Steppenzone) sowie vom Typ Hordeevka, Belogrudovka und Černoles (in der Waldsteppenzone) markiert, für die wir über mehrere Radiokarbondatierungsreihen verfügen, und die auf den partielle Synchronismus dieser Erscheinungen mit der Siedlung von Siret, bzw. mit der Gáva-Holihrady Kultur zeigen (siehe Tabelle 2, die Fundorte von Hordeevka, Subotov, Stepnoy)[27]. Die Analyse dieses Problems übersteigt aber den Zweck unseres Vortrags.

Zum Abschluss kann man feststellen, dass der Optimismus der Spezialisten in der Radiokarbonmethode bezüglich der Kompatibilität der kalibrierten ^{14}C-Datierungen mit den Daten der historischen Chronologie mit Mäßigung berüksichtigt sein müssen. Es gilt wenigstens für die späten vorgeschischtlichen Perioden, wo auch die um ein Jahrhundert kleineren Altersunterschiede wichtig für das richtige Verständnis der geschichtlichen Phänomene sein können. Um Verwechselungen zu vermeiden, wäre es wünschenswert, wenn man für die Bronzezeit sowie für den Anfang der Eisenzeit mit verschiedenen Datierungssysteme operieren, diese eindeutig und auch durch die benutzten Kürzel anzugeben (v. Chr., v. u. Z. für die „historischen", durch *cross dating* erhaltenen Datierungen, und Cal BC für die kalibrierten Radiokarbondatierungen). Auf diese Art und Weise verfahren, heisst es, dass die Radiokarbondatierungen ein nützliches

Instrument für besseres Verständnis mancher, bisher fast ausschliesslich durch die Kontaktchronologie untersuchten Perioden, wie es zum Beispiel für die Urnenfelderzeit der Fall ist, bilden können. Das ist auch was wir in den Seiten dieser Arbeit zu demonstrieren versuchten.

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[24] Bojadžiev 1992, 17-19.

[25] Siehe Jung--Veniger 2002, 282-290, Tabelle 2.

[26] Siehe Anmerkung 1.

[27] Siehe Klochko et al. 1998 (Subotiv); Gorski et al. 2003 (Hordeevka, Subotiv); Ślusarska-Michalik 2003 (Hordeevka); Otroshchenko 2003 (Stepnoy). Für die in der Tabelle 2 dargestellte, im Text nicht erwähnte Fundorte siehe Motzoi-Chicideanu 2003-2005, 466-467, fig. 1 (No. 13-15: Nižna Myšl'a); Popa –Boroffka 1996, 56 (No. 18: Sighişoara); Kacsó 2004, 60 (No. 19: Oarţa de Sus); Weller –Dumitroaia 2005, fig. 5 (No. 22-23: Poiana Slatinei); Gorski et al. 2003, 289 (No. 24-27: Ivanye, Netyšin, Mahala I); Palincaş 1996, 243-257 (No. 41: Popeşti); siehe auch László 2006, 132, Abb. 7.

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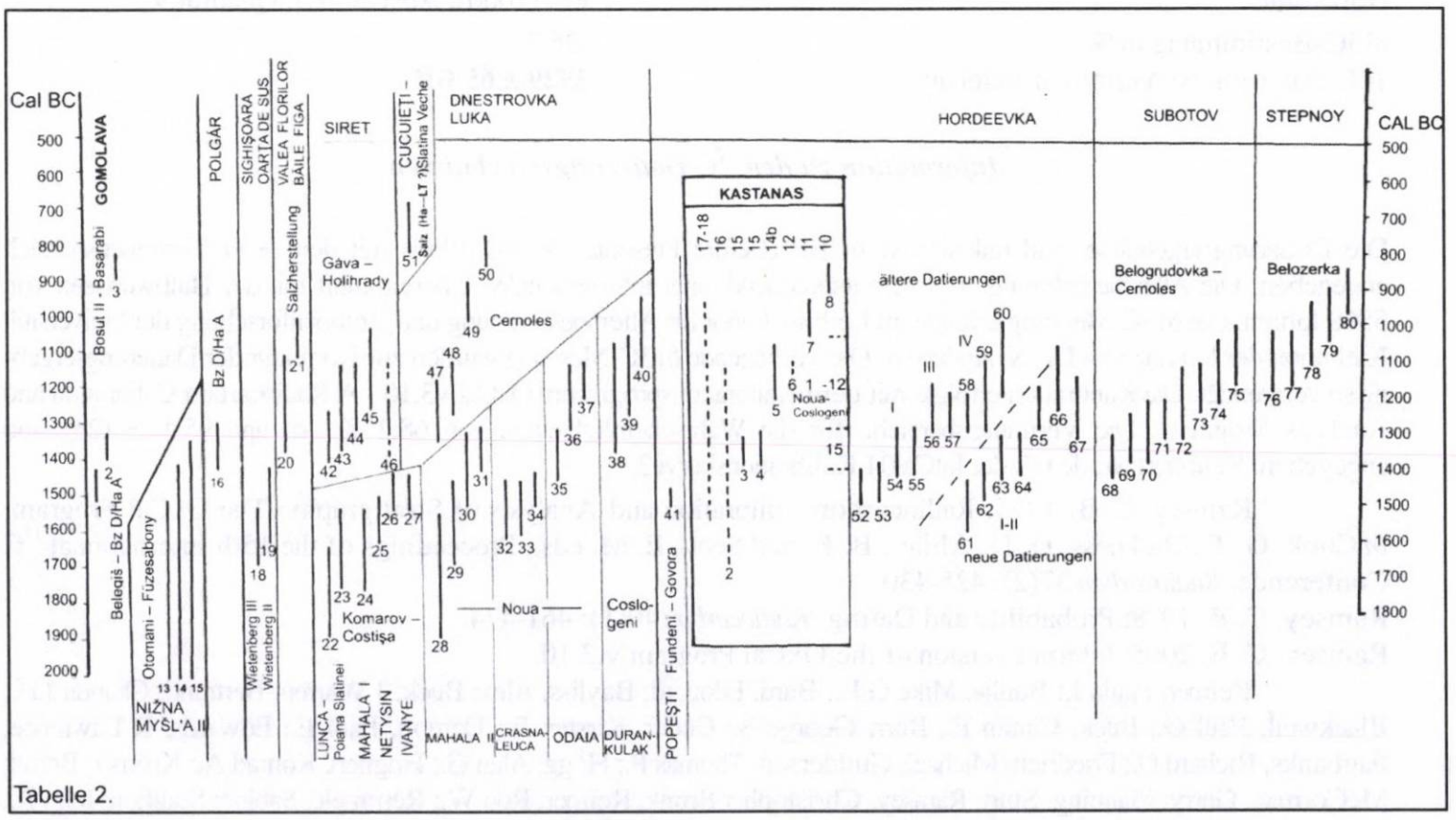

Tabelle 2.

Tabelle 2. Die chronologische Lage der Gáva-Holihrady Siedlung von Siret im Rahmen der ^{14}C-Datierungen der Bronze- und frühen Eisenzeit des Karpatenraumes, Makedoniens und des nordwest-pontischen Gebietes.

Anhang. Die Datierung der Proben von Siret in Berliner ^{14}C-Labor.

1. Datierungsergebnisse.
2. Kalibrierte Daten.
3. Kombinierte Datierung der vier Proben.

ANHANG

Deutsches Archäologisches Institut
Zentrale, Referat Naturwissenschaften
Dr. Jochen Görsdorf

Berlin, den 26.1.07

Datierungsergebnisse

Bln-5786	Siret
Holzkohle	Pr.3(1998), Abschnitt 5, Quadrat 82
δ13C-Bestimmung in ‰:	-27,0
14C-Alter mit 1σ Vertrauensbereich:	**3006 ±37 BP**
Bln-5788	Siret
Holzkohle	Pr.5(2000), Abschnitt 5, Quadrat 56
δI3C-Bestimmung in ‰:	-26,2
14C-Alter mit 1σ Vertrauensbereich:	**3056 ± 50 BP**
Bln-5790	Siret
Holzkohle	Pr.8(2000), Abschnitt 5, Quadrat 91
δ13C-Bestimmung in ‰:	-25,5
14C-Alter mit 1σ Vertrauensbereich:	**2987 ± 49 BP**
Bln-5789	Siret
Holzkohle	Pr.7(2000), Abschnitt 5, Quadrat 98
δI3C-Bestimmung in ‰:	-26,7
14C-Alter mit 1σ Vertrauensbereich:	**2929 ± 65 BP**

Information zu den ^{14}C-Datierungsergebnissen

Die Datierungsergebnisse sind unkalibriert in BP (Before Present, vor AD 1950) mit dem ± lσ Vertrauensbereich angegeben. Die Altersberechnung erfolgte entsprechend einer internationalen Übereinkunft mit der Halbwertszeit von 5568 Jahren. Die δ13C-Messung erfolgte im Leibniz Labor für Altersbestimmung und Isotopenforschung der Universität Kiel unter der Leitung von Dr. N. Andersen. Die vorliegende δ13C-Messung wurden zur Korrektur der Datierungsergebnisse verwendet. Die Kalibration erfolgte mit dem Kalibrationsprogramm OxCal v3.10 - A Radiocarbon Calibration and Analysis Program1. Die Vertrauensbereiche für die Wahrscheinlichkeiten von 68,2 % (lσ) und 95,4 % (2σ) sind angegeben. Kalibriert wurde mit der IntCal04 Kalibrationskurve2.

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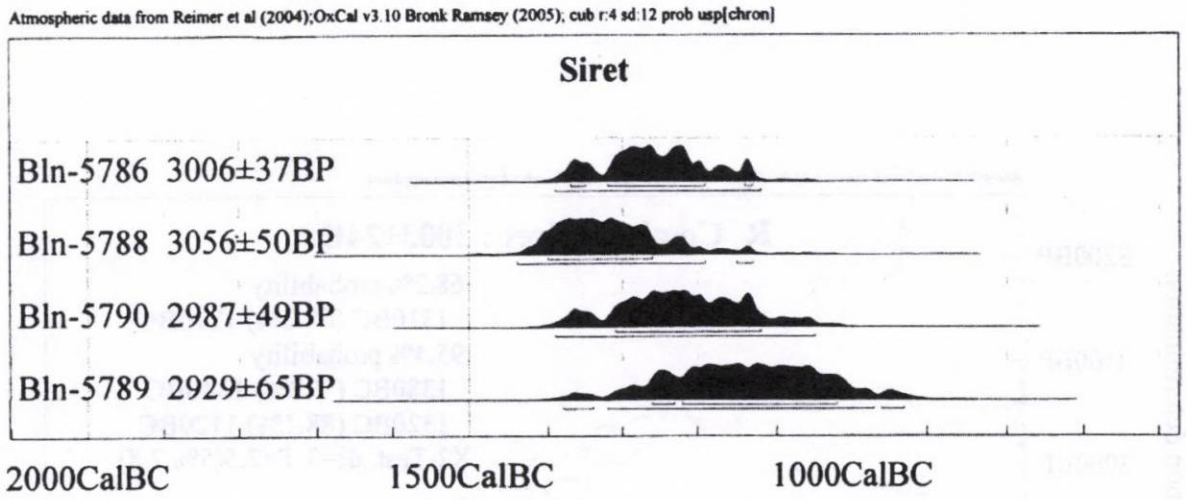
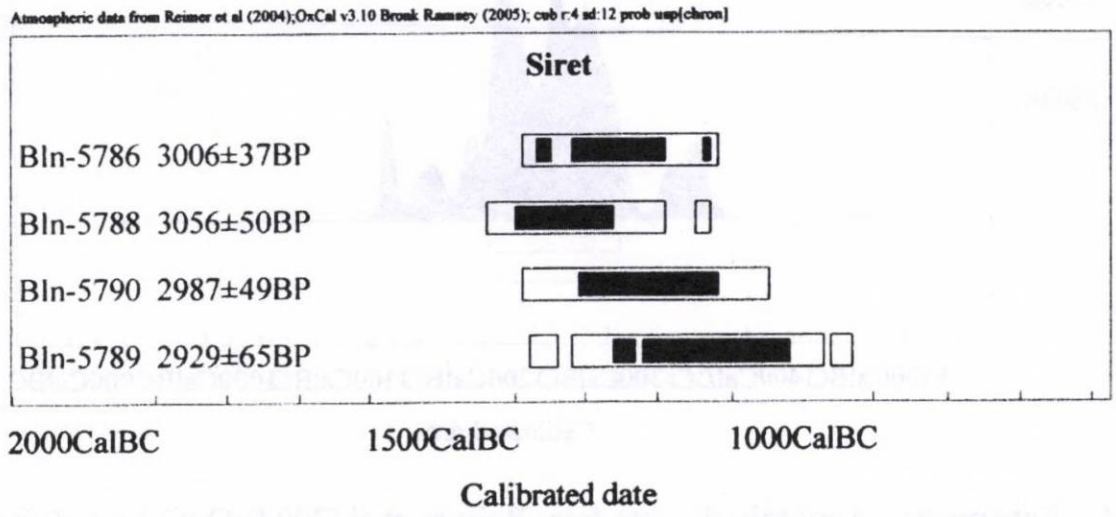




INFORM : References - Atmospheric data from Reimer et al (2004);OxCal v3.10 Bronk Ramsey (2005); cub r:4 sd:12 prob usp[chron]

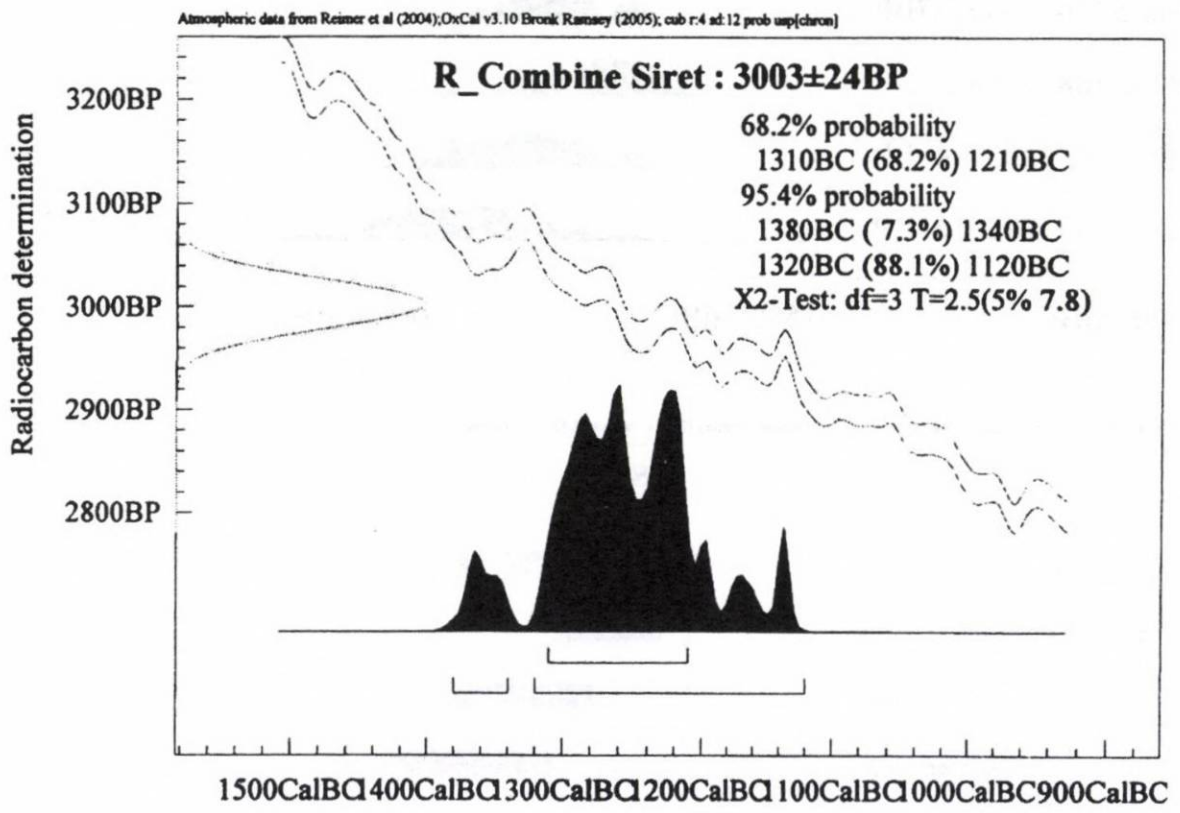
Bln-5786 : 3006±37BP
68.2% probability
1370BC (5.1%) 1350BC
1320BC (61.3%) 1190BC
1140BC (1.8%) 1130BC
95.4% probability
1390BC (95.4%) 1120BC

Bln-5788 : 3056±50BP
68.2% probability
1400BC (68.2%) 1260BC
95.4% probability
1440BC (94.3%) 1190BC
1150BC (1.1%) 1130BC

Bln-5790 : 2987±49BP
68.2% probability
1310BC (68.2%) 1120BC
95.4% probability
1390BC (95.4%) 1050BC

Bln-5789 : 2929±65BP
68.2% probability
1260BC (7.0%) 1230BC
1220BC (61.2%) 1020BC
95.4% probability
1380BC (1.8%) 1340BC
1320BC (91.5%) 970BC
960BC (2.1%) 930BC

Anhang 2.



INFORM : References - Atmospheric data from Reimer et al (2004);OxCal v3.10 Bronk Ramsey (2005); cub r:4 sd:12 prob usp[chron]

R_Combine Siret : 3003±24BP
68.2% probability
1310BC (68.2%) 1210BC
95.4% probability
1380BC (7.3%) 1340BC
1320BC (88.1%) 1120BC
X2-Test: df=3 T=2.5(5% 7.8)

Anhang 3.

Early Iron Age Storage Pit at Porumbenii Mari–Várfele (Harghita County)[1]

Nagy József-Gábor–Körösfői Zsolt

The village of Porumbenii Mari is located 10 km east from Cristuru Secuiesc, on the right bank of the Târnava Mare River's middle section, in the Porumbenii Mari Valley. The first mention and geographical specification of Porumbenii Mari – Várfele was by Balázs Orbán.[2] Afterwards, several authors mention the site in the literature.[3]

Over this period of time some archaeological findings discovered at this site were brought to the Transylvanian National History Museum's storage. It is worth mentioning the black-brick red and black-yellow, polished pottery fragments, decorated with incised meanders and channeling donated by Samu Borbély and Eugen Groza in 1922–1923 and 1934.[4] A "Villanovan urn"[5] fragment as well was believed by Márton Roska to have come from this site.[6]

The pottery fragments found by Sándor Ferenczi in the summer of 1933 completed the series of the finds from Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. One can distinguish urn fragments decorated with channeling, incurved bowl fragments and a stone net weight.[7]

In the 1950's István Ferenczi and Géza Ferenczi's field walks provided new information about the Early Iron Age[8] settlement from Porumbenii Mari.[9] Following the research made in the sixties by the Ferenczi brothers, several vessel fragments were brought into the Museum of Cristuru Secuiesc.[10]

An important milestone of the research at this site was the rescue excavation carried out by Zoltán Székely and István Molnár.[11] During the archaeological recovery of the

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[1] I would like to thank Dr. Zsolt Molnár-Kovács for his work on revision of the study.

[2] „A Vágás pataka és Küküllő összefolyása közti Várfele sarka nevű előfokon, a tető-csúcsot oly sánczolatok körítik, mely egy itt állott váracsra engednek következtetni" (Orbán 1868, 30). The site is located on the height called Várfele, between the confluence of the Vágás stream and the Târnava Mare River.

[3] Macrea et al. 1951, 306; Popescu 1958, 144, nr. 23; Popescu 1958a, 482, 23; Horedt 1961, 181/6; Morintz 1970, 95; Ferenczi – Ferenczi 1973, 339; Ardeu 1995–1996, 210, nr. 153/a; Benkő 1992, 112-113, 15/12; RepHar 2000, 159, nr. XXVIII g/2 (462).

[4] Kalmar – Crişan 1995, 754, nr. IV, pl. V (MNIT, Cluj-Napoca, INV. 2879-2962 = P. 54481, 45499-45562, 45564-5, 6).

[5] The Villanova type urn, the most characteristic vessel of the Gáva culture, which in Transylvania bares importance only for the historiography, drew the attention of many researchers, who noticed the resemblance with the early Italian urns (Childe 1929, 291). Later István Foltiny considered the „pseudo Villanova urns" as the characteristic vessel type of the Gáva group, separating the variants into different periods (Reinecke Br. D – Ha A-B) and areas (Carpathian Basin). This researcher contradicted the connection with Northern Italy and emphasized the importance of local groups such as Füzesabony, Egyek, Berkesz-Demecser, Noua, Suciu de Sus, Otomani, Wietenberg, Vatina, Gârla-Mare, Dubovác and Vatya (Foltiny 1967, 65-67).

[6] Roska 1942, 192, nr. 31 (MNIT, Cluj-Napoca, INV. IV. 2484); Márton Roska in his archaeological repertory marked the Porumbenii Mari settlement on the sites map belonging to the Villanova-Hallstatt culture (Roska 1942, 192, 349-350, XVII, 124).

[7] Roska 1942, 192, nr. 31 (MNS, Sfântu Gheorghe, INV. 8168-9); Ferenczi – Ferenczi 1958, 19, nr. III/1a; RepHar 2000, 159, nr. XXVIII g/2 (462).

[8] This study refers mainly to the early and middle period of the Early Iron Age of the research area. Although the terminology Reinecke Hallstatt A–D used in the Romanian literature applies mostly to the Central European Region, because it has a well established tradition it will be used hereafter. Gogâltan Florin, based on the chronological systems established by the researchers Amália Mozsolics (Mozsolics 1984, p. 47-48), Tibor Kemenczei (Kemenczei 1996, 247-271), Vasiliev Valentin (Vasieliev et al. 1991, 102-129) and Károly Kacsó (Kacsó 1990, p. 42-49) divided the Transylvanian Late Bronze Age into three periods: Late Bronze Age I-III, Central European Br. B2-C–Ha A, and the Early Iron Age into four periods: Early Iron Age I-IV, Ha A_2-B_1–Ha D (Gogâltan 1999-2000, 43-47).

[9] Ferenczi – Ferenczi 1958, 18-19, nr. III/1a (MHR, Odorheiu Secuiesc, INV. 3780-3809, 5072). On the Vártető site, located North–East of the modern day settlement, there is a mention in the earlier literature of an Early Iron Age settlement which can be linked to the one from Várfele. It was probably a satellite settlement located close to the fortified settlement. The name Vártető may indicate a refuge fortification to which there are analogies from the same time and in similar locations at: Someşul Rece-Cetate, Huedin-Bolic and Sărăţel (Ferenczi–Ferenczi 1958, 19-20, III/1b).

[10] Benkő 1992, 113 (INV. 188-190, 268-270, 421, 988-989); RepHar 2000, 159, nr. XXVIII g/2 (462).

[11] Popescu 1958, 144, nr. 23; Székely 1959a, 194-196; Horedt 1961, 181/6; Székely 1966, 29; Benkő 1992, 113; RepHar 2000, 159, nr. XXVIIIg/2 (462).

remains in 1956, only a 10 x 2 m trench, oriented East–West, was researched.[12] During the excavation in 1957, in the 30 cm thick culture layer, circular shaped spots covered with ash and daub were found. On the western side of the terrace at the end of trench no. 1, a 5 x 3.5 m irregular oval shaped pit-house was revealed.[13] As parallels of this latter archaeological site Zoltán Székely mentioned the Early Iron Age pit-houses from Teleac,[14] Mediaş–Cetate[15] and Aiud[16]. According to the researcher the short-lived occupation site with a single layer was surrounded by a ditch on the southern side. In the opinion of the researcher, the houses situated 10–15 m from one another, indicate a pastoral-farming community.[17] The documentation and the archaeological material from the excavation can be found in the Molnár István Museum in Cristuru Secuiesc.[18]

The analysis of the finds from Porumbenii Mari was first published by Zoltán Székely in 1966, together with the archaeological materials of two other settlements, Cernat–Vârful ascuţit (Csernáton–Hegyes) and Reci (Réty–Telek).[19]

Elek Benkő, during his field walks in the area, made surface collections on several occasions at the Porumbenii Mari site, but he couldn't locate the ditch indicated by Zoltán Székely, on the south–south-west slope of the Vágás stream, at the southern edge of the left terrace.[20]

As a premise to our research, on the 1st of April 2007, Lajos Kuti, a local resident brought Early Iron Age pottery fragments to the Molnár István Museum. The donator of the finds narrated that he first collected the pottery having been emerged in the hole that was dug by wild boar. Subsequently, he dug a hole at this place and found a large quantity of restorable vessel fragments.

After arriving at the site, Zsolt Körösfői opened a 3.5 x 3.5 m box trench including the looter's pit to verify the stratigraphy. After removing the upper 25 cm thick yellow clay layer, he observed an irregular circular shaped pit with a diameter of 165 cm. There were ash, charcoal filling, animal bones and fragments of large storage vessels in this homogenous pit (Figure 2/A). Zsolt Körösfői observed that the pottery fragments were located at the sides of the pit. The feature turned out to have a bell shape in cross section with an internal depth of 36 cm. On the south side of the pit there were four large flat stones, but it couldn't be determined whether they were placed intentionally in the pit (Figure 2/B).

Following the rescue excavation, Lajos Kuti donated an animal figurine to the museum that according to him stemmed from the Early Iron Age pit.

Description of finds

The findings of the pit consisted mostly of pottery fragments:

1. Large vessel (INV. 17.591, Figure 3/1), with outcurved rim, cylindrical neck and rounded, biconical body, well smoothed and polished surface, brown-greyish colour and crushed sherd temper. Below the junction of the neck and the body there is a pair of horizontal and vertical knobs, oriented upwards, surrounded with semi-circular channeling. H.: 79 cm, Rd.: 49.5 cm, Bd.: 15.5 cm[21].

2. Medium size vessel (INV. 17.592, Figure 3/2), with outcurved rim, arched neck, globular, rounded biconical body, well smoothed, polished inside the rim, brown-greyish coloured, crushed sherd temper. It is decorated with garland channeling on the upper third and horizontal

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[12] Székely 1966, 29-31. The maximum depth of the trench was 0.60 m.
[13] Székely 1966, 31-33; Benkő 1992, 113.
[14] Vasiliev et al. 1992, 37.
[15] Zaharia 1965, 84-85; Blăjan et al. 1979, 35.
[16] Ciugudean 1976, 9, fig. 3.
[17] Székely 1966, 34-35.
[18] Popescu – Dumitrescu 1957, 355, 27; Popescu – Dumitrescu 1957a, 339, nr. 27; Székely 1959, 237, nr. 3; Benkő 1992, 113 (INV. 919-987, 1011-1012, 1023, 1025-26, 2697-2718).
[19] Székely 1966, 5-47.
[20] Nowadays only the erosion of the terrace edge is visible (Benkő 1992, 113).
[21] H = Height, Rd = Rim diameter, Bd = Base diameter.

channeling on the lower part of the neck. The prominent belly is decorated with vertical channeling. H.: 42 cm, Rd.: 29 cm, Bd.: 12.5 cm.

3. Medium size vessel (INV. 17.593, Figure 3/3), with composite shape, prominent body, conical base, the neck and the rim are missing, well smoothed and polished surface, brown-greyish coloured outside and grey inside, with crushed sherd temper. At the junction of the neck and the body there are four knobs, oriented upwards, surrounded by semi-circular channeling. The maximum diameter of the vessel is decorated with oblique channeling. Bd.: 13 cm.

4. Large vessel (INV. 17.594, Figure 4/1) with cylindrical neck, rounded biconical body, the rim is missing, well smoothed and polished, black coloured outside and red, black spotted inside, with crushed sherd and gravel temper. At the junction of the neck and the body there are four bosses, pushed from inside the body, surrounded with garland channeling. H.: 48.5 cm, Rd.: 31 cm, Bd.: 13.5 cm.

5. Small vessel (INV. 17.595, Figure 4/2), with outcurved rim, arched neck, and rounded biconical body, well smoothed, brown-brick red coloured, with sand temper. Rd.: 18.5 cm.

6. Small vessel (INV. 17.596, Figure 4/3), with outcurved rim, arched neck, rounded, globular body, well smoothed, polished, black coloured outside and brown-brick red inside, with sand temper. On the neck, below the rim there are two small handles. The neck is decorated with horizontal channeling and the body with garland channeling. Rd.: 14 cm.

7. Bag-shaped vessel fragment (INV. 17.597, Figure 4/4), without neck and rim, coarse, poor smoothed, brown coloured, greyish spotted, oxidant firing, with crushed sherd temper. Bd.: 10 cm.

8. Shallow bowl fragment (Figure 7/6), with outcurved rim, well smoothed, polished, black inside and brown-greyish outside, with sand temper. The inner part of the rim is decorated with horizontal channeling.

9. Vessel fragment (Figure 5/5), with outcurved rim, well smoothed, polished, grey coloured outside and brown-greyish inside, with gravel temper.

10. Globular vessel fragment (Figure 5/1), well smoothed, polished, with black colour outside and brown-greyish inside, with crushed sherd temper, and garland channeling on the upper part of the body.

11. Vessel fragment (Figure 5/4), with vertical channeling on the rounded biconical body, black outside and brick red-brown inside, well smoothed, with crushed sherd temper.

12. Fragmentary animal figurine (Figure 1/2) naturalistic made of burned clay, brown-red coloured. Its head is missing.

Stray finds from surface collections

13. Bag-shaped vessel (Figure 6/3), with a knob on the neck, coarse, poor smoothed, greyish-brick red coloured with secondary burning and gravel temper.

14. Bag-shaped vessel (Figure 6/5), with a knob on the neck, coarse, poor smoothed, greyish-brown coloured with secondary burning, with crushed sherd and gravel temper.

15. Vessel fragment (Figure 5/3), with rounded biconical body, well smoothed, grey outside and greyish-brown inside, with crushed sherd temper.

16. Vessel fragment (Figure 5/2) decorated with vertical channeling on the rounded biconical body, well smoothed, brick red outside and greyish-brown inside, with crushed sherd temper.

17. Mug fragment with handle (Figure 7/4), well smoothed, brick red-brown, with crushed sherd temper.

18. Fragmentary miniature mug (Figure 7/1), medium smoothed, black-greyish coloured, fine sand temper.

19. Vessel fragment, probably a handle (Figure 7/2), decorated with incisions arranged in a fishbone pattern, well smoothed, black-greyish, fine sand temper.

20. Bag-shaped vessel (Figure 6/4), medium smoothed, greyish-brown with secondary burning and with crushed sherd temper.

21. Mug fragment (Figure 7/3), with outcurved rim, conical base, decorated inside the rim with channeling, well smoothed, polished, black, fine sand temper.

22. Shallow bowl fragment (Figure 7/5), with incurving rim, well smoothed, greyish-black, with crushed sherd temper.

23. Bag-shaped vessel (Figure 6/1), with grooved decoration on the neck and impressed decoration on the rim, poor smoothed, brown-brick red, with secondary burning and pebble temper.

24. Bag-shaped vessel (Figure 6 /2), with a knob on the neck, coarse, poor smoothed, greyish-brown with secondary burning and crushed sherd temper.

Analysis of vessels' forms and decorations

In the analysis of the pottery forms and decorations, the stray finds from the surface collections were also studied and compared to the previous archaeological materials. Although the pottery from the 1956–1957's excavations was very fragmented, on publishing the excavation results Zoltán Székely determined a few important vessel types that are characteristics of the Early Iron Age. Based on the pottery fragments, it could be determined that the black, polished vessels with thick walls, cylindrical necks and prominent, biconical bodies decorated with channeling dominated the pottery production of the settlement.[22] Analyzing the findings, Zoltán Székely mentioned three cups,[23] and two bag shaped vessels decorated with knobs on the neck.[24] The researcher from Sfântu Gheorghe distinguished two bowl types: one with outcurved rim, articulated body, omphalic base, with internal decoration,[25] and another with strongly outcurved rim, arched body and omphalic base.[26] In Székely's assessment there were two mug types: one "kidney shaped", with omphalic base and looped handle,[27] and the other with arched body, slightly outcurved rim.[28] Besides the mentioned types, mugs, with channelled decoration on the upper part of the body, could be identified.

Regarding the ornamentation of the vessels, Zoltán Székely draws attention to the frequency of channeling and the decoration pattern with incised, parallel, wavy lines. The channeling was usually located around the knobs and the boss pressed from inside the wall of the vessel.[29]

The pottery fragments decorated with S shaped incisions and cord ornaments that have analogies at Tilişca,[30] Braşov[31] and Cuci,[32] were considered by Zoltán Székely to be an influence coming from the Southern Carpathian region.[33]

The majority of the findings from to the Early Iron Age pit, researched in 2007, have been restored. Besides the large urns there are a number of pottery fragments that could not be restored. Two major categories could be distinguished, based on the external aspect of the vessel (surface treatment, polishing degree), the method of preparing the clay and the temper used in creating the pottery: a. fine pottery (biconical pots, mug and bowls) and b. coarse, utilitarian pottery (bag-shaped pots).

The category of fine pottery, with well smoothed surfaces includes the vessels with outcurved rim, cylindrical neck, biconical body and narrow base. One can consider these well-known urns in the Mediaş–Teleac cultural area as the most characteristic vessel types

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[22] Székely 1966, 31, 55, pl. VI/1-3.
[23] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/6, 9, 18.
[24] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/5, 20.
[25] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/6, 10.
[26] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/11, 15.
[27] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/16.
[28] Székely 1966, 33, 55, pl. VI/22.
[29] Székely 1966, 33, 53, pl. V/3.
[30] Lupu 1989, pl. 4/2, 7; 5/4.
[31] Alexandrescu – Pop 1970, 164, fig. 5/4.
[32] Berciu – Berciu 1946, 21.
[33] Székely 1966, 53, pl. V/1; Vasiliev et al. 1991, 94.

from Porumbenii Mari.[34] Horia Ciugudean, analyzing the vessels with biconical bodies – based on the size and morphological characteristics – created several subtypes[35].

The type of vessels[36] generally referred to in the literature as "Villanova-Urns", were determined as Ia type, mentioned in the writing from 1991, 3A type in Attila László's 1994 monograph and the 1a type in Claudia Pankau's thesis.[37] The same category includes the larger vessels from Porumbenii Mari, with outcurved rim, cylindrical neck, biconical, rounded body (Figure 3/1; Figure 4/1;[38] Figure 5/1, 5) and the medium vessels with arched neck and prominent belly (Figure 3/2). There are two stray finds originating from the surface collection that are similar to the vessels described above (Figure 5/2, 3). As the characteristic ornaments of the urns, with polished surface, black outside and brick-red or greyish-brown inside, can be mentioned the knobs and embossment situated on the upper part of the body surrounded by semicircular channelling, the garland grooves on the upper part of the body and the vertical channelling on the belly of the vessels. The ornaments realized by garland channelling placed on the neck and associated with horizontal grooves is a typical decoration pattern for the Bz D - Ha A period[39].

The origin of the vessels with widely outcurving rim, high cylindrical neck and prominent belly, present in the pot making from Porumbenii Mari, should be looked for in a large geographical area, in the Igriţa, Lăpuş and Pilinyi cultural areas.[40]

In the second phase of the Gáva culture[41] in the Upper Tisza area, the vessels with biconical body went trough form changes: the handles and bosses below the rim disappeared and the channeling of the neck became sporadic. This process was also displayed by the frequent use of the fluting and tubular handles on the upper part of the vessel.[42]

The presence of the biconical vessels and generally of the Gáva pottery types in the Carpathian Basin was placed in the period from the end of the 11–10th century B.C.[43] Numerous analogies could be mentioned for the large vessels from Porumbenii Mari in the Transylvanian Early Iron Age settlements.[44] The vertical (Figure 5/2, 4) and oblique (Figure 5/1) channelling are characteristic ornament of the globular vessels with prominent body. As a general observation in the Reinecke Ha B period the smaller upper part of the vessels were decorated with oblique channelling. This was characteristic mostly of the pottery discovered in the Lower Course of the Mureş River and Banat.[45]

The Ib type, being determined in the interpretation of the pottery findings from Teleac by Horia Ciugudean has a similar shape as the previous Ia type, being only different in

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[34] In Transylvania there is an early start in the research of materials similar to the Gáva Culture finds, for example an urn from Târgu-Mureş published by István Kovács could be mentioned (Kovács 1915, 248/22).

[35] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80-82.

[36] In the analysis of vessel types I used the typology established by Horia Ciugudean (Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80-82), Attila László (László 1994, 75-77) and Claudia Pankau (Pankau 2004, 52).

[37] Pankau 2004, TypenTafel 2/1a.

[38] There are analogies in the "Gáva-Holihrady" cultural area at: Reci-Telek (Zaharia 1965, fig. 11/12; RepCov 1998, 269, Pl. XIII/1-2); At the fortified settlement from Cernat–Hegyes-tető, dated in the Reinecke Ha B period, archaeological researches were made by Zoltán Székely in 1961, 1963 and 1980 (RepCov 1998, 70, XIIb, 13/180; Székely 2007, 70-79, 134, 8 ábra). In 1963 he unearthed a pit house in trench no. 2. Near the fireplace he discovered a large, well smoothed, black coloured vessel with cylindrical neck and rounded biconical body, decorated with garland channelling and a knob (Székely 1983, 145, fig. 2/6, 146, fig. 4). In the repertory is wrongly mentioned as Ghidfalău (RepCov 1998, 269, pl. XIII/4; Méder 2006, 51/2; Székely 2007, 72-73, 136, 10 ábra; Méder 2008, 46/2); Poian-Kőhát (Méder 2006, 56, 3/2; Méder 2008, 52, taf. 3/2); Siret-Dealul Ruina (László 1976, 74, nr. 67; Niculică 2007), Grăniceşti (László 1994, 245-46, fig. 25-26); Hódmezővásárhely-Kopáncs XI. dülő in pit no. V a typologically similar vessel without bosses (V. Szabó 1996, 86, 31/1, V. Szabó 2004, 110, 10/4).

[39] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80-81; Boroffka 1994, 9-18.

[40] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80.

[41] Dated by T. Kemenczei in the Ha A_2-B_1 (Kemenczei 1984, 96).

[42] Patay 1976, 193-196.

[43] Vasiliev 2008, 13-14.

[44] Mediaş (Zaharia 1965, fig. 5/1-3, 8/2-3), Reci-Telek (Székely 1966, pl. II/4, III/4, IV/3; RepCov 1998, 269, pl. XIII/2), Teleac (Vasiliev et al. 1992, 228, fig. 32/1; Vasiliev et al. 1992, 225, fig. 29/2.); Cernat (Székely 1983, 145, fig. 2/6, 146, fig. 4; RepCov 1998, 269, pl. XIII/4).

[45] László 1973, 595.

size[46]. Based on the size differences, it would be meaningless to talk about two different variants, so the researchers gave a different utilitarian function of the smaller vessels as an answer. At the same time, studying the profile of the vessels from Teleac they separated three variants (Ib1–3). It can be pointed out that the Ib1 variant from Teleac and the 8Aa variant after Attila László are typologically similar vessels, but smaller with slightly outcurving rim, arched neck and rounded body.

A similar vessel found in the pit in Porumbenii Mari bears well smoothed surface, decorated on the neck with horizontal and the upper part of the body with garland channelling (Figure 4/3). The coocurence of these two decorations represents an archaic characteristic;[47] there are similar ornament association from the settlements dated back to the Reinecke Br. D – Ha A period from Susani,[48] Simeria[49] and Igriţa. The above mentioned form and ornament is also present in the early stage of Alba Iulia – Monolit settlement[50], recently attributed to the Gáva I phase, dated by Horia Ciugudean in the second half of Ha A period[51]. Similar finds are know from Teleac as well, [52] considered to belong to the earliest phase, Teleac Ia.[53] According to the new chronological sequence proposed by Horia Ciugudean the aforementioned vessel type is not a familiar in the Transylvanian pottery production after the beginning of the Reinecke Ha B period.

The smaller pot with well smoothed surface, arched neck and biconical body discovered in the pit in Porumbenii Mari (Figure 4/2) can be classed into the Ib2 variant after Horia Ciugudean,[54] into the 3Ba variant after Attila László's 1994 monograph[55] and 1b variant after Claudia Pankau's work[56].

The "composite shaped vessel", with widely outcurving rim, cylindrical neck, prominent globular body and conical base[57] appears in Valentin Vasiliev's and his collegues book in 1991 as the II type,[58] and at Attila László as the 3A type.[59] Claudia Pankau named this type three-piece storied vessel (*Dreiteiliges Etagengefaß*).[60] The medium vessel, with prominent upper body and conical, narrow base from the Porumbenii Mari pit (Figure 3/3) is close to the biconical vessels both regarding the typology and functionality. The characteristic ornament of the belly was the oblique channeling. Typologically similar, but chronologically earlier vessels could be found in the Late Igriţa Group and in the closed finds of the Gáva Culture that can be dated back to the Reinecke Ha A2 – Ha B1 period.[61] The carrying on of the mentioned vessels in the Reinecke Ha B period is proved by the findings at Cernat–Hegyes,[62] Reci–Telek,[63] Turia–Apor kúria,[64] Porumbenii Mari–Várfele[65] and the second habitation layer at Teleac[66].

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[46] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80.
[47] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 80-81, 89; Marta 2010, 204.
[48] Stratan – Vulpe 1977, pl. 6/94.
[49] Andriţoiu 1983, pl. 3/4-5.
[50] Ciugudean 2009, taf. VIII/5.
[51] Ciugudean 2009, 67-68, abb.2.
[52] Vasiliev et al. 1992, 228, fig. 32/12.
[53] Ciugudean 2009, 68, taf. I/2.
[54] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 81.
[55] László 1994, 77, 302, planşa II/3Ba.
[56] Pankau's 2004, TypenTafel 2/1b.
[57] Foltiny 1967, 63-64, taf. IV-V; László 1973, 591; László 1994, 75.
[58] Vasiliev et al. 1992, 82.
[59] László 1994, 75-77, 302, planşa II/3A.
[60] Pankau 2004, 50, Abb. 7/5.
[61] V. Szabó 2004, 83.
[62] Székely 1966, pl. IV/4, 6-7.
[63] The characteristic vessel types are: the black coloured, polished vessels with outcurving rim, cylindrical neck, biconical body and narrow base and the composite shaped vessels, with widely outcurving rim, cylindrical neck, prominent globular body and conical base (RepCov 1998, 121, XXVIIIc/10 (455), 269, Pl. XIII/1-2). In the research area there aren't bosses pushed from inside the vessels which are characteristic for the Gáva I type vessels from the Tisza region (Székely 1962, 327, fig. 2/1; Zaharia 1965, fig. 11/10; Székely 1966, pl. II/3, III/3, IV/1-2; Berciu 1966, planşa XVI; Smirnova 1974, 363, fig. 2, 17, 18; RepCov 1998, 269, pl. XIII/1; Vasiliev 2008, 16, Abb. 1/38-39).

The bowls form a distinct category in the finds from Porumbenii Mari – being a wide-spread vessel in the pot making of the Early Iron Age settlements – are found in considerable quantity. From the researched site there are two bowl types:

1. The inside decorated shallow bowl fragment with widely outcurving rim (*Schalen mit geknickter Wandung*)[67] that was found in the excavated pit (Figure 7/6) can be included in the IVd type after Valentin Vasiliev and his collegues[68] and in the 2Ccb variant after Attila László's volume from in 1994[69].

2. The shallow bowl fragment with incurving rim and arched body found in the surface collection (Figure 7/5), was categorized in the typology of Vasiliev's and his collegues as the IVb_4 variant,[70] in László's as the 2Da variant[71] and named by Claudia Pankau as flat dome shaped bowls (*Kalottenförmige Schalen*).[72]

The material from the surface collection involves as well mugs. Apart from the slightly outcurving mug, decorated inside the rim (Figure 7/3),[73] classed by Horia Ciugudean into the VIc type[74] and by Attila László into the 6A one,[75] there was an interesting miniature mug fragment, with a straight rim and arched body (Figure 7/1)[76]. In case of the globular, handled mugs generally the diameter of the lip corresponds with the height of the vessel (Figure 7/4). The mentioned drinking vessels were included by Vasiliev and his collegues in the VIb type[77] and by Attila László's tipology in the 5Fb variant[78].

The "bag shaped", coarse pots with poorly smoothed surface and arched body (Figure 4/4)[79], belonging to the utilitarian pottery category, were grouped by Valentin Vasiliev into the IIIb type,[80] by Attila László into the 4 Ab variant[81] and by Claudia Pankau into the 2a variant[82]. The discussed vessels are characteristic of their height exceeding the maximum diameter[83] and were usually decorated with four knobs that are placed under the rim.[84] The scale of the vessels from Porumbenii Mari was similar to the ones discovered at Reci[85] and Mediaş[86] (1: 0.70 – 1: 0.92). During the field walks several bag-shaped vessels were collected. Among the straight finds all three kinds of bag shaped vessels occured: with straight or slightly arched body (Figure 6/4),[87] with knobs below the outcurving rim (Figure 6/2, 3, 5) and with

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[64] The pottery fragments found in the Apor kúria were dated in the Early Iron Age, Reinecke Ha B (RepCov 1998, 143-144, XXXIIIc/1, 580, 269, pl. XIII/3); Kató 2005, 28 (information and picture Méder Lóránt-László).
[65] Székely 1966, pl. VI/1, 3.
[66] Vasiliev et al. 1992, 227, fig. 31/13, 237, fig. 41/5, 7. For the presence in the second habitation layer see Vasiliev et al. 1992, 83.
[67] Pankau 2004, Typentafel 4.
[68] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 86.
[69] László 1994, 72, 301, planşa I/2Ccb.
[70] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 86.
[71] László 1994, 71-75.
[72] Pankau 2004, 62, Typentafel 4, Variante 3; Méder 2006, 58, 5/1.
[73] Several analogies can be found to this type of mug from: Cernat (Székely 1983, fig. 1/8); Reci-Telek (Székely 1966, pl. V/8, 9; Smirnova 1974, 363, fig. 2, 15-16); Tilişca-Cățănaş (Lupu 1989, pl. 1/8); Teleac (Vasiliev et al. 1991, 235, fig. 39, nr. 3 şi 8); Mediaş (Zaharia 1965, fig. 6); Sighetu-Marmaţiei (Horedt 1966, fig. 8/1).
[74] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 88.
[75] László 1994, 82-83, 305, planşa V/6 A.
[76] The function of the normal scale vessels replica is uncertain, they can be interpreted as toys or ritual objects. (Vasiliev et al. 1991, 91-92).
[77] Vasiliev et al. 1992, 88.
[78] László 1994, 68, 304, planşa IV/5 Fb.
[79] Teleac (Vasiliev et al. 1992, 227, fig. 31/19-20, 229, fig. 33/1-6, 9), Reci-Telek (Székely 1962, 327, fig. 2/2; Székely 1966, 47, pl. II/1; 49, pl. III/1-2); Porumbenii Mari (Székely 1966, 55, pl. VI/5; Benkő 1992, 7 tábla/10); Poian-Kőhát (Méder 2006, 59, 6 ábra/5; Méder 2008, 55, taf. 6/5).
[80] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 83.
[81] László 1994, 68, 303, planşa III/4 Ab.
[82] Pankau 2004, Typentafel 3/2a.
[83] László 1994, 68.
[84] László 1994, 70.
[85] Székely 1966, pl. II/1, III/1/2, VI/5.
[86] Zaharia 1965, fig. 9/4.
[87] Méder 2006, 62, 9 ábra/5; Méder 2008, 58, taf. 9/5.

rippled decoration (Figure 6/1). Antecedents of this vessel type could be found in the Late Bronze Age, from the Wietenberg Culture, but the shape was still used with small differences, until the end of the Iron Age, so it has small chronological value.[88]

Along with the pottery fragments mentioned above in the pit from Porumbenii Mari a fragmentary animal figurine (Figure 5/1) – which can also be attributed to the Early Iron Age – was discovered. The zoomorphic statuette was moulded in a realistic manner, with the essential characteristic of a domestic animal, probably bull or a ram. Same figurines can be found in all the area of Gáva–Holihrady culture, but being a wide-spread element, it can be found on numerous Early Iron Age settlements.[89] The presence of these zoomorphic statuettes on the settlements and in the ritual pits can be linked to the practices of protecting the animals and influencing their breeding.[90]

The interpretation of the finds

A key issue in the interpretation of the finds from Porumbenii Mari was the settle of the sacral or profane character of the pit. Could the everyday habits be separated from the ritual ceremonials?[91]

The pits with rich pottery inventory cannot be regarded always as storage or rubbish pits, in this case the ritual character also had to be taken into consideration.[92] The ethnological analogies showed that the inventory of the rubbish pits was influenced by taboos related to food, cooking, eating and the handling of pots.[93]

In case of ritual deposition the high status of the pottery was reflected in the standardized manufacture and design of certain given types of vessels, by using new advanced techniques of surface treatment.[94] The use of black and red vessels, with well smoothed polished inside or outside, decorated with various types of channelling was typical of the Early Iron Age. The handling of the pottery was regulated, after the sacrifice or ritual consumption of the vessels' contents they were buried empty in the ground.[95] In other cases the vessels had to be ritually smashed to withdraw the specific instruments of the ritual from everyday handling.[96]

A possible approach in the interpretation of this type of features was to search for intact, reusable objects that indicated non-waste or objects broken and deposited on site.[97] As a reference had be observed that if there were waste materials, like daub and animal bones in the filling of the pit or traces of use on the surface of the recovered pottery, that are characteristic for a refuse pit.

At first sight the pit in Porumbenii Mari showed similarities with the first type of vessel deposition separated by V. Szabó Gábor. He included the depositions of Tiszacsege and Gyoma[98] in this type, both found on settlements, with vessels broken in the pit or before placing them into the pit.[99]

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[88] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 83.

[89] Berciu–Berciu 1946, 21, fig. 6/2, 12/40; Poroszló-Aponhát (Patay 1976, 197, Abb. 3/7-9); Lechinţa de Mureş (Popescu 1925, 313, I-V t.; Horedt 1963, 527-534, fig. 2/1-11; Kemenczei 1971, 46; Popescu 1956, 316); Teleac (Berciu – Popa 1965, 84-85, fig. 5-6; Vasiliev et al. 1983, 156, fig. 1, 4; Vasiliev 1985-1986, 80-83, fig. 1, 2; Vasiliev et al. 1991, 145, 223, fig. 27, 224, fig. 28, nr. 1-8); Reci-Telek (Székely 1966, pl. VII/6); Grăniceşti (László 1994, 90, 266-269, fig. 46-49), Chinari-Mociar (Rezi – Nagy 2009, 100, footnote 17, 129, fig. XXII/141-142); Ursache 1999, 41-69.

[90] Vasiliev 1985-1986, 80-83; Ursache 1999, 45.

[91] "Settlement site pit" defines a hole dug in the ground and filled again, to which a functional definition can't be given today (Stålbom 1997, 23).

[92] Stålbom 1997, 32.

[93] Stålbom 1997, 33.

[94] Stålbom 1997, 32.

[95] V. Szabó 2004, 87.

[96] Stålbom 1997, 32-33.

[97] Presumably they took the reusable objects to the new settlement leaving behind the dwelling remains and the thrown away objects (Stålbom 1997, 27-28).

[98] Genito–Kemenczei 1990, 113-125.

[99] V. Szabó 2004, 86.

The majority, about 85% of the vessels, found in the pit in Porumbenii Mari are represented by the large storage vessels. In the feature medium size storage vessels were also found, but the pottery used for personal serving, like bowls and mugs, were missing.

As a consequence of the rescue excavations, correlation could be seen between the excavated pit and the settlement identified by the previous surface collections and archaeological excavations. The find circumstances – the faunal turbation and the looters' pit – made it impossible to identify the original excavation level of the pit.[100] The pit, dug into the hillside, followed the outline of the slope; the north side was located higher than the southern one. The upper part of the pit that originally probably had a bell-shape couldn't be documented because the founder, Lajos Kuti had excavated it in search of pottery fragments. This way it could be interpreted why most of the pottery fragments were concentrated on the pits' edges.

As the pit contained also domestic waste and the position of the vessels from the filling didn't suggest any intact deposited vessels broken by the pressure of the ground, it could be stated that this was a storage pit that was later used as a refuse pit.

Based on the typological-chronological analysis of the vessels discovered in the pit, a part of the pottery ornamented with so called "archaic" decoration elements, can be dated to the Reinecke Ha A2[101]. The chronological framing of the discoveries can be an issue, because the aforementioned pots are associated with vessels that are carrying on in the Reinecke Ha B period[102]. At present we don't know the exact relation of this feature in the evolution of the settlement from Porumbenii Mari, presumably dated in the beginning of the Early Iron Age[103] (into Reinecke Hallstatt A2–B1[104]).

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[100] The internal depth measuring 36 cm doesn't cover the real depth of the pit, which started probably under the humus layer.

[101] Similar findings were unearthed at Alba Iulia–Monolit and Teleac (Ia) Ciugudean 2009, 67-68.

[102] Cernat–Hegyes (Székely 1966, pl. IV/4, 6-7); Reci–Telek (Székely 1962, 327, fig. 2/1; Zaharia 1965, fig. 11/10; Székely 1966, pl. II/3, III/3, IV/1-2; Berciu 1966, planşa XVI; Smirnova 1974, 363, fig. 2, 17, 18; RepCov 1998, 269, pl. XIII/1; Vasiliev et al. 1991, 83; Vasiliev 2008, 16, Abb. 1/38-39). Teleac (Vasiliev et al. 1992, 227, fig. 31/13, 237, fig. 41/5, 7. For the presence in the second habitation layer see Vasiliev et al. 1992, 83) and Turia–Apor kúria (RepCov 1998, 143-144, XXXIIIc/1, 580, 269, pl. XIII/3); Kató 2005, 28). The metal discoveries from the Porumbenii Mari site offered some chronological reference. The six axes discovered here were dated in Reinecke Ha B1 (Vasiliev 1992, 22). Liviu Marta has published a stray find Fibula, from the site, which is an Eastern, Cernat variant of the Unter-Radl type Fibula, that has an evolution from Reinecke BD–Ha A untill the Ha B period (Liviu 2003, 253–260).

[103] Székely 1959a, 194; Székely 1966, 37; Morintz 1970, 95; Kemenczei 1971, 48; C. Pankau, summarized the chronological systems of the Transylvanian Early Iron Age. In accordance with this the earliest Transylvanian finds belong to the first phase of the Reci settlement (Reinecke Ha A2). The settlements from Porumbenii Mari, Alba Iulia, Tuşnad and Ghidfalău could be placed in the same early period. The Reinecke Ha A_2-B_1 phase is the period of the large fortified settlements like Mediaş I and Teleac I. The settlements from Târgu-Mureş and Lechinţa de Mureş are contemporary with the early phases of the fortified settlements. The late phase, Reinecke Ha B_2-B_3 is marked by the settlements from Reci II–Cernat, Teleac II, Dej (Cluj County, Vasiliev 1995, 11-31), Ciceu-Corabia (Bistriţa-Năsăud County, Vasiliev 1995, 89-123), Bozna (Sălaj County, Vasiliev 1995, 61-88), Subcetate (Hunedoara County, Vasiliev 1995, 33-60), Şeica Mică and Tilişca (Sibiu County) Pankau 2004, 91-94.

[104] This period corresponds to the Gáva Culture from the Tisza River Area (Szabó 2004, 83), Iron I being parallel with the end of Ha A and Ha B1 from Central Europe (Gogâltan 1999-2000, 45).

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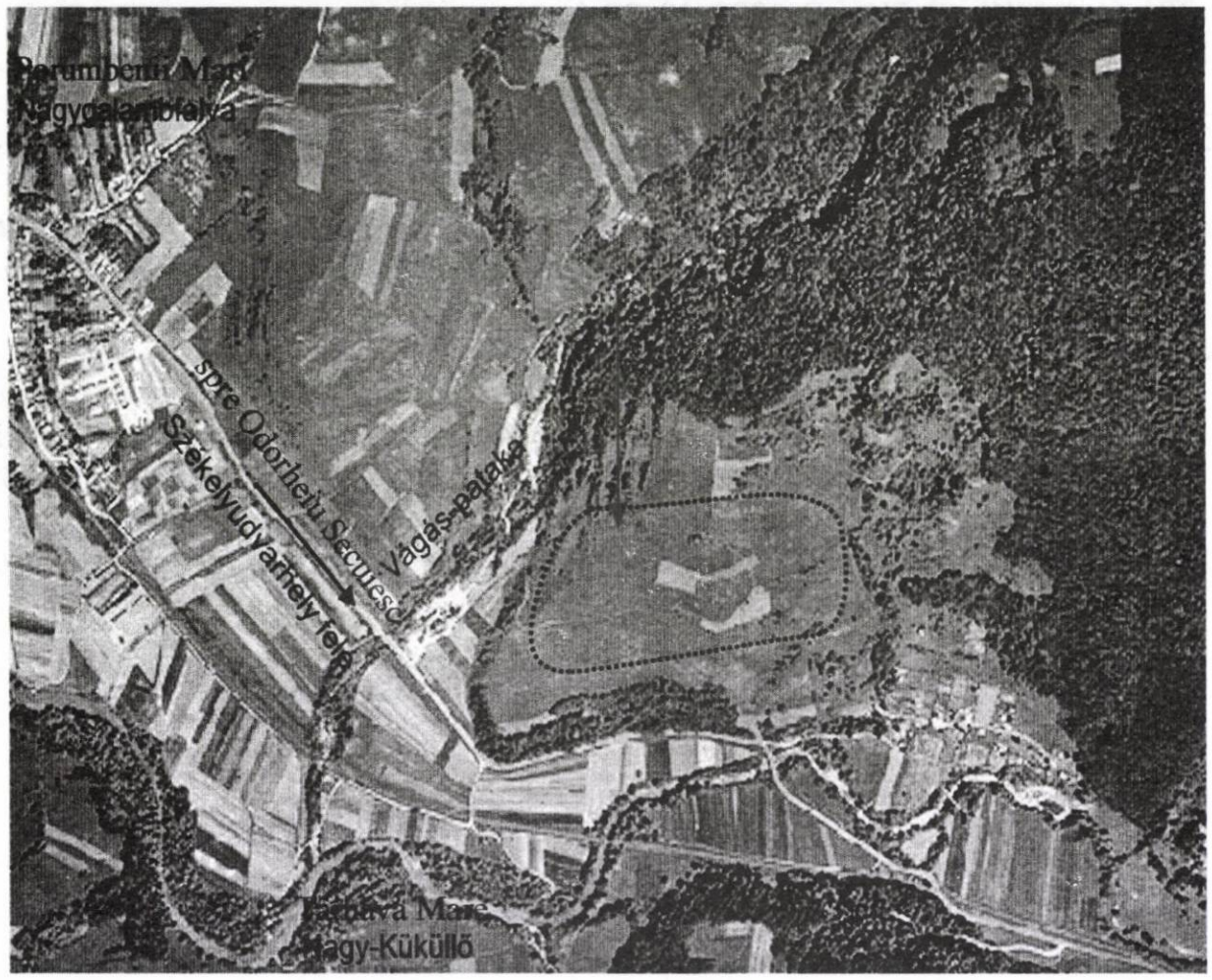

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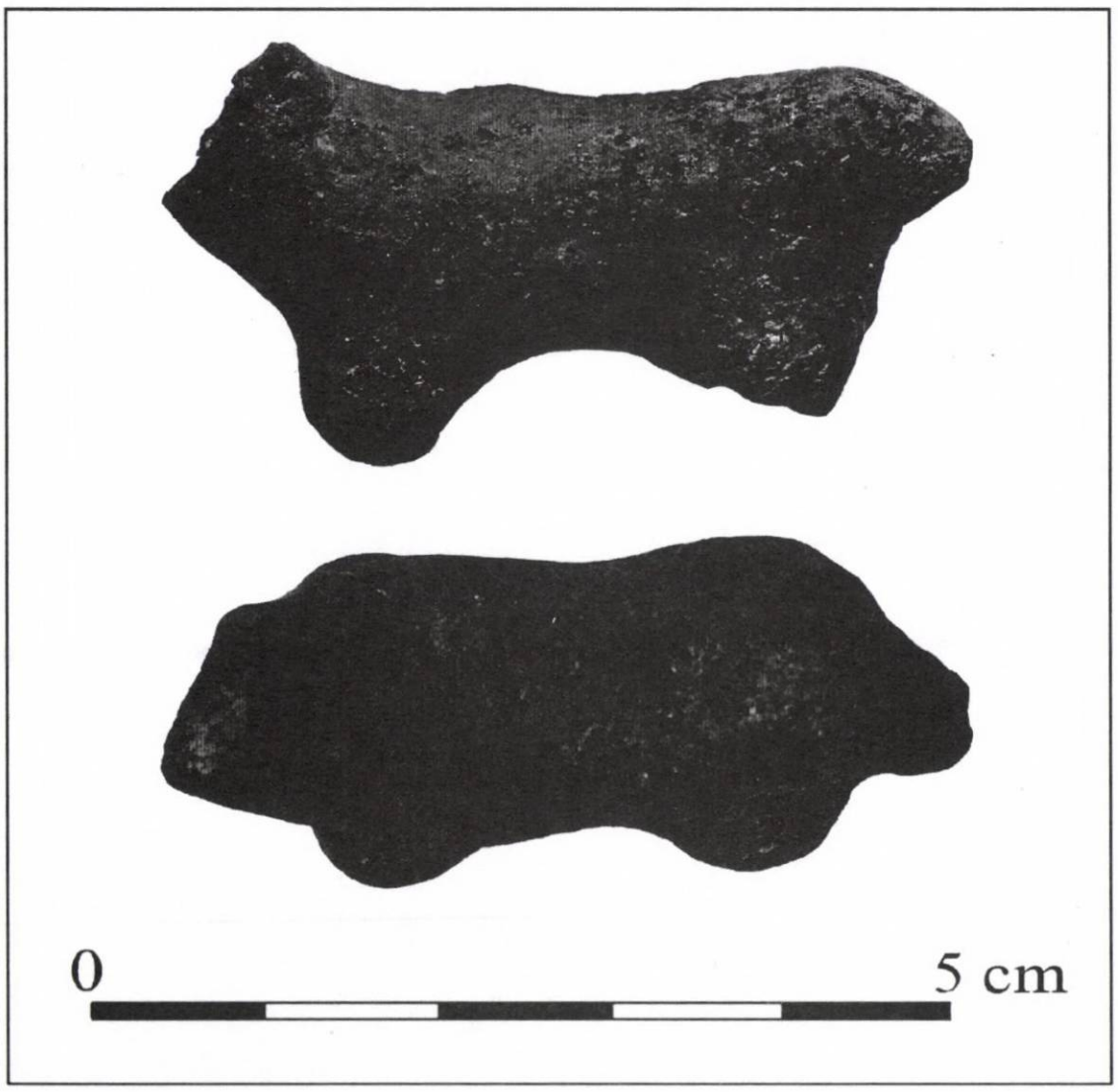

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Figure 1. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. 1. The location of the finds. 2. Zoomorphic statuette.

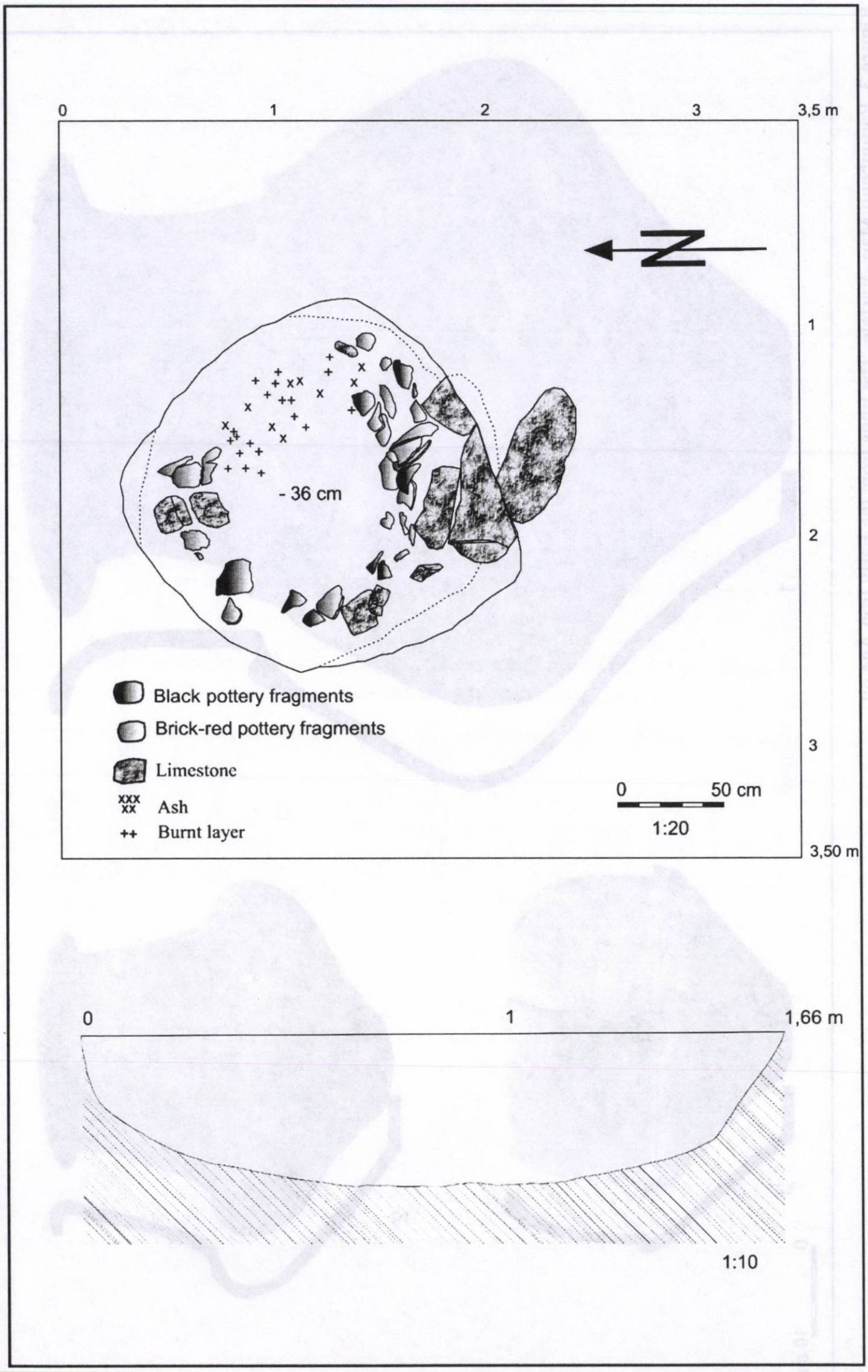

Figure 2. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. Exposure of the finds and cross section of the pit.

Figure 3. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. The finds from the Early Iron Age pit.

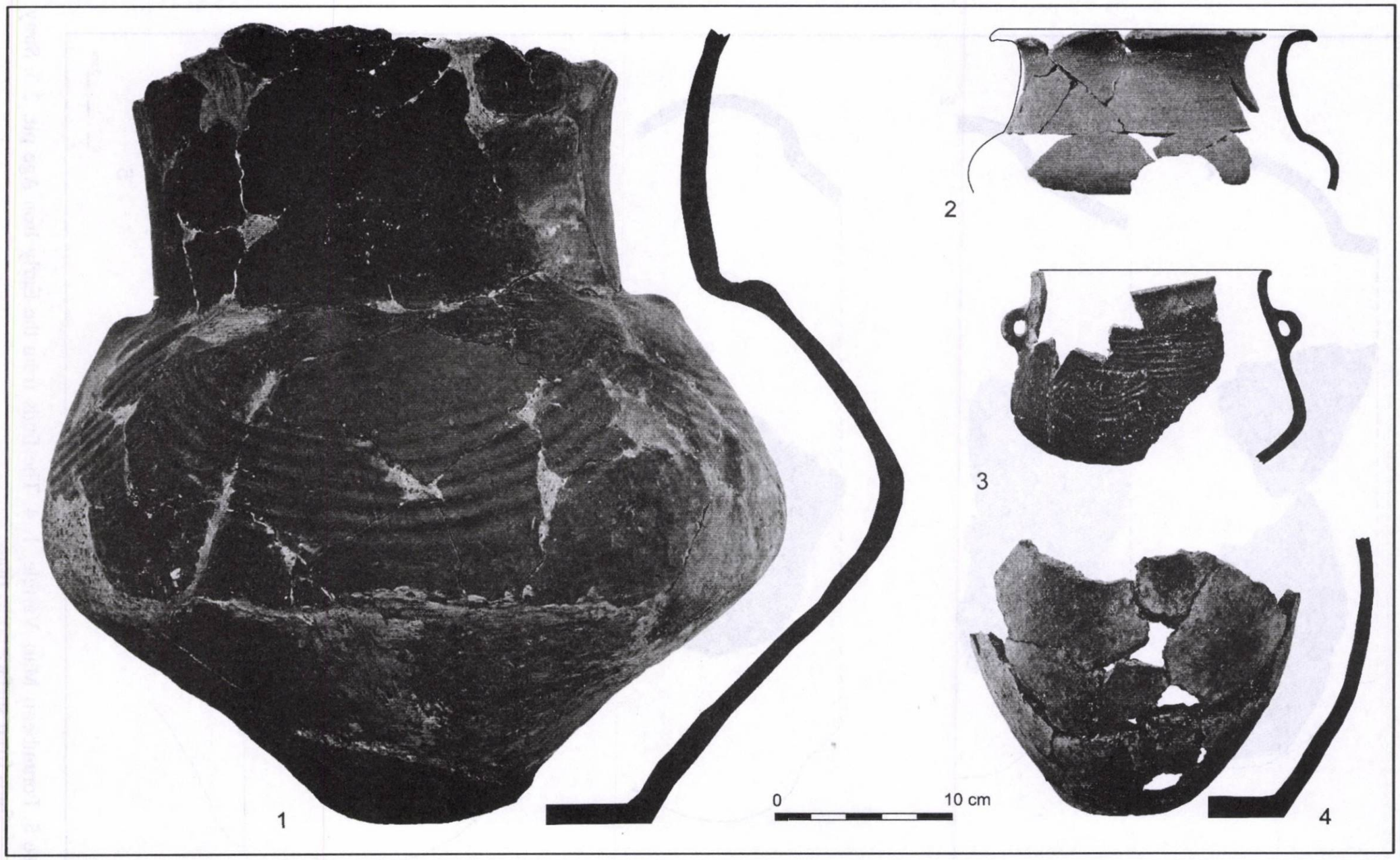

Figure 4. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. The finds from the Early Iron Age pit.

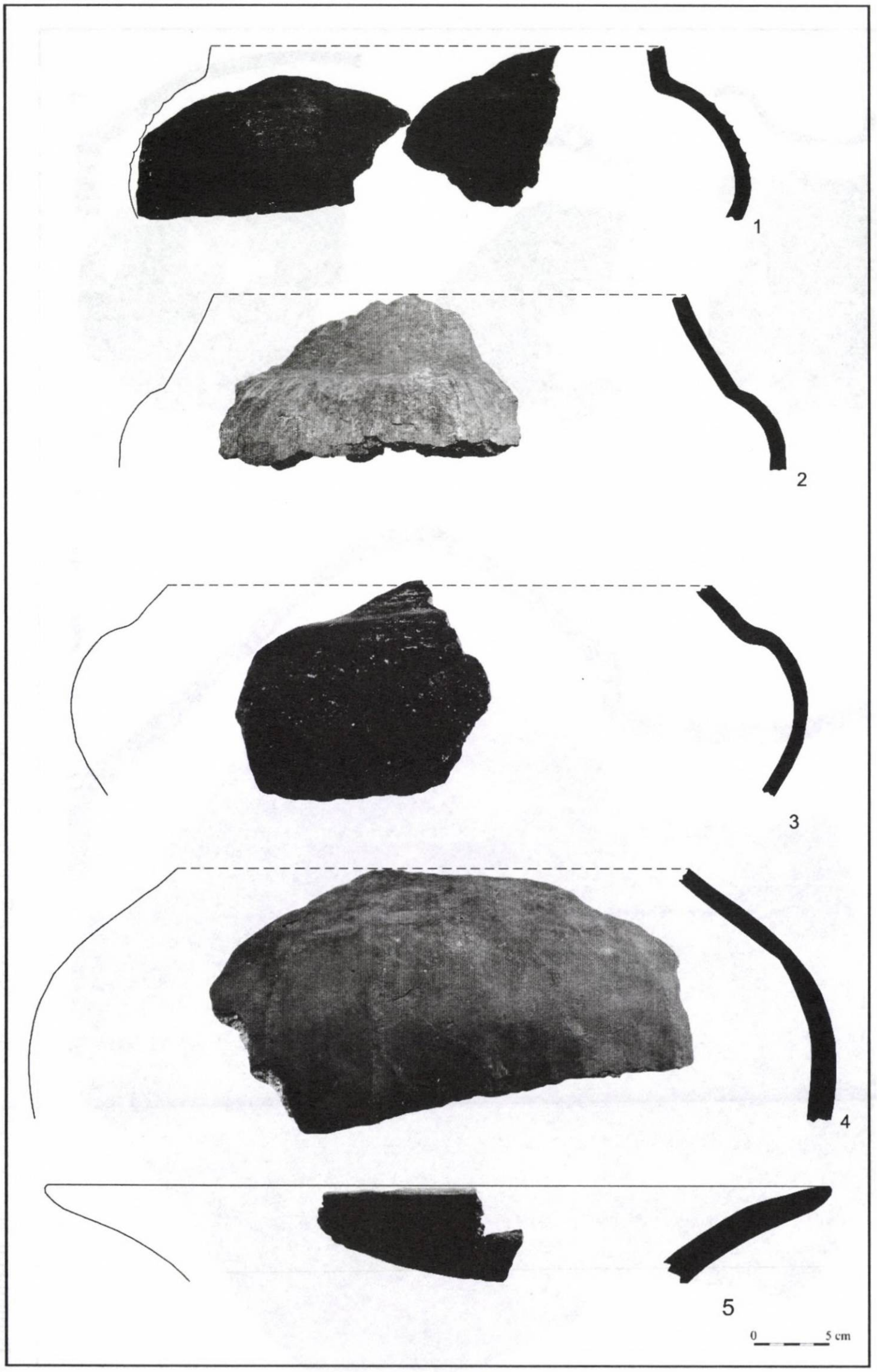

Figure 5. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. 1, 4. The finds from the Early Iron Age pit. 2-3. Stray finds from surface collections.

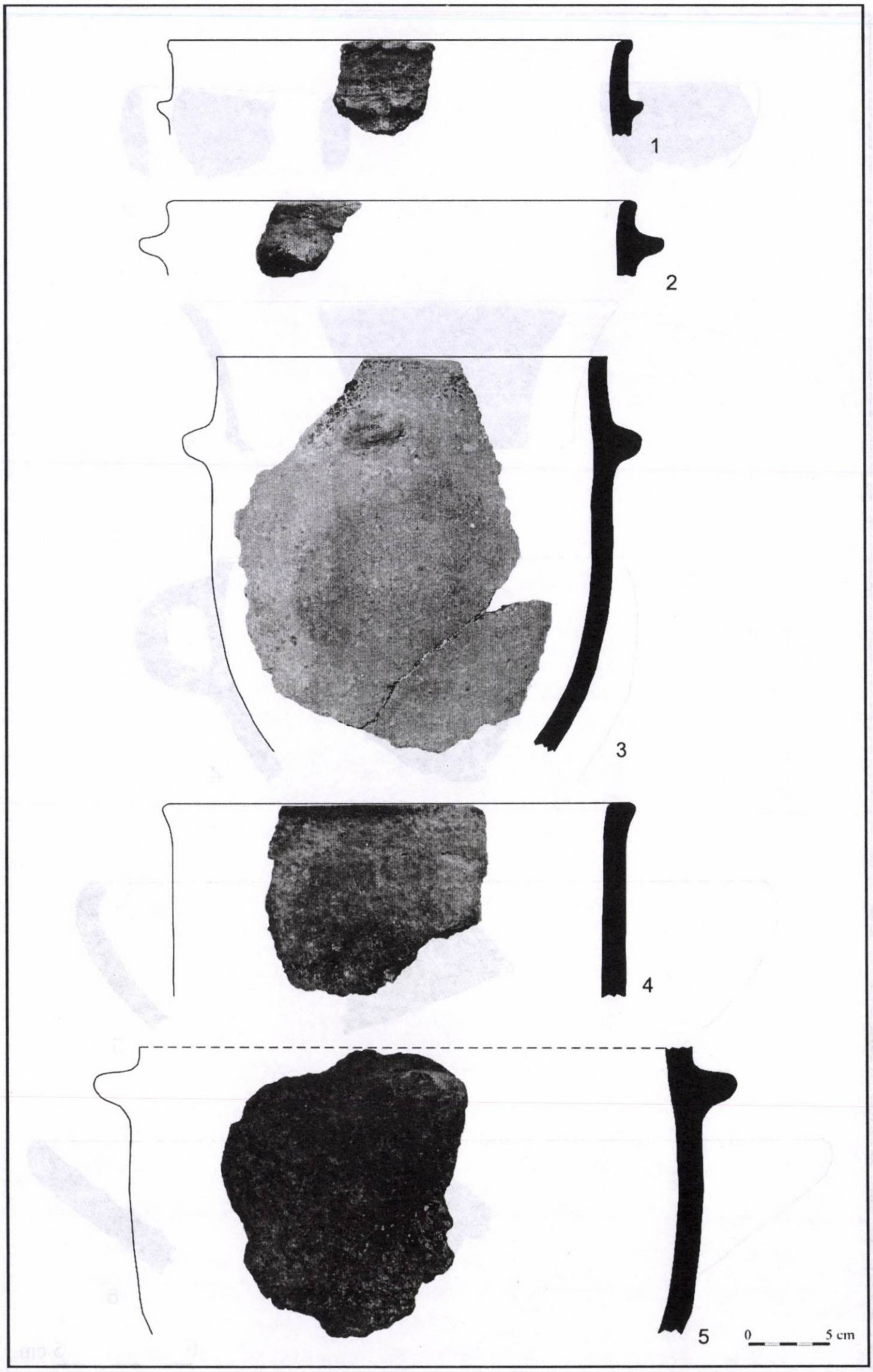

Figure 6. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. Stray finds from surface collections.

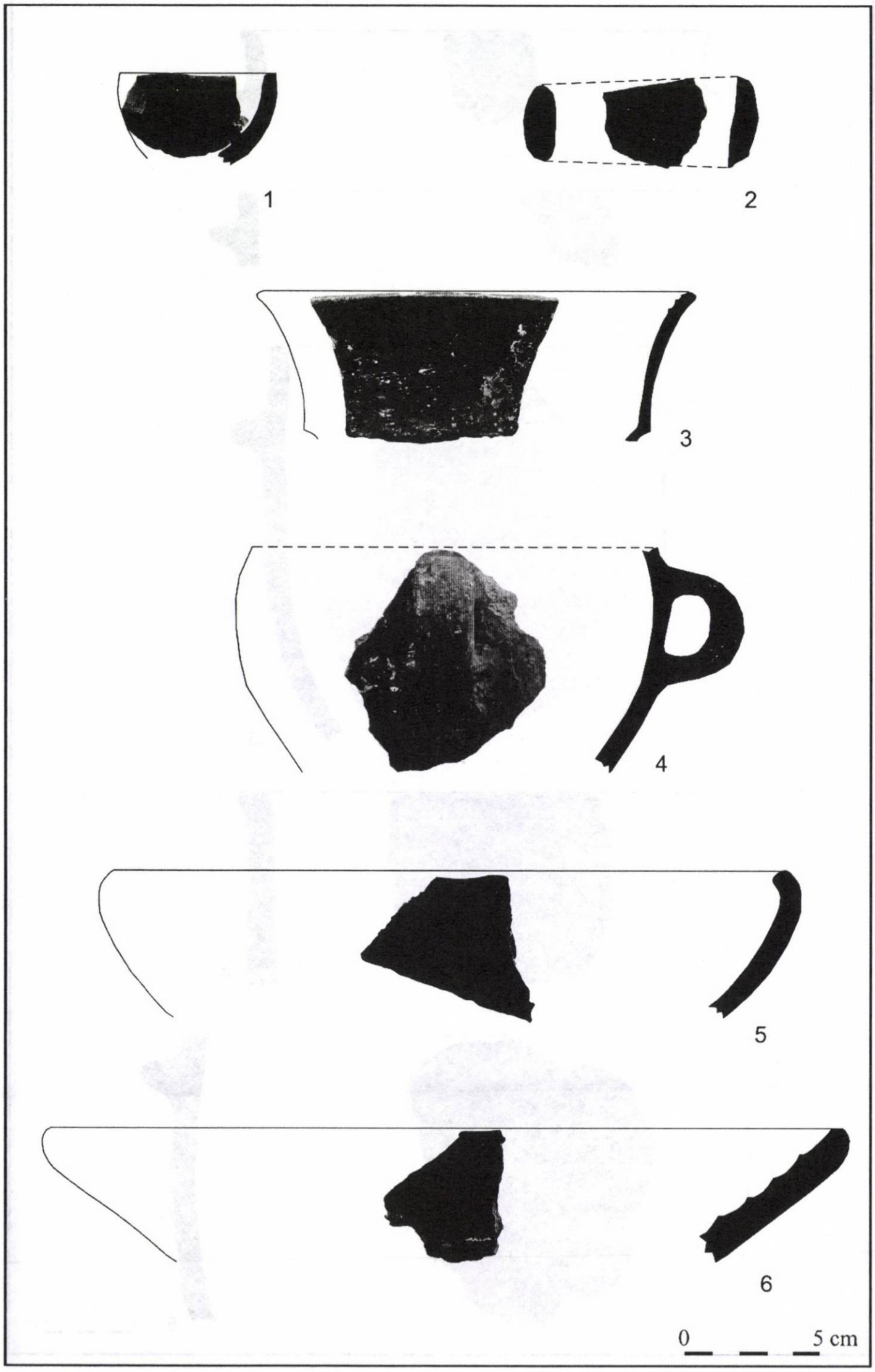

Figure 7. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. 6. The finds from the Early Iron Age pit. 1-5. Stray finds from surface collections.

Animal Bones from the Early Iron Age Pit at Porumbenii Mari–Várfele (Harghita County)

Imola Kelemen

The faunal remains excavated from the Early Iron Age pit were in a fragmented and a slightly weathered state, most of them (not based on number of fragments, but on number of species and individuals) being kitchen waste. The total of 56 fragments can be categorized into only three groups of domestic species: 47 pieces of a young horse's skull, 5 cattle bones, 2 pig bones and 2 ribs belonging to an animal of small-medium size.

Domestic cattle (*Bos taurus*):

– two fragments of a left mandible (with a calf's teeth and a growing molar–juvenile individual);

– one distal epiphysial fragment of a thigh bone (the line of ossification is visible–subadult individual);

– one proximal epiphysial fragment of a left shinbone, probably broken for the marrow inside, with cut marks and teeth marks (ossified–adult individual);

– one fragment of a thoracic vertebra.

Domestic pig (*Sus scrofa domesticus*):

– one fragment of a skull (processus supraacusticus);

– one diaphysial fragment of a radius with teeth marks.

Horse (*Equus caballus*):

– 47 pieces of a juvenile individual's skull, apart from the splinters the identifiable parts were: one skullcap, one os petrosum, the partly burnt occipital bone with the occipital condyls on it, two temporal bone and two nasal bone fragments, one palatine bone, one upper left jaw (molars and premolars, M2 growing), isolated teeth (upper right molars: M1-M2, the latter in growth; upper incisor also in growth), one fragment of a lower jaw with 6 incisors (calf's teeth).

Unidentified, small-medium sized mammals: two rib fragments.

	Bos taurus (cattle)	*Sus scrofa domesticus* (domestic pig)	*Equus caballus* (horse)	Unidentified, small-medium sized mammals
Cranium	2	1	47	
Radius		1		
Femur	1			
Tibia	1			
Vertebra	1			
Costa				2

Table 1. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. The animal bones found in the Early Iron Age pit.

Not all of the faunal remains found in the pit can be considered kitchen waste. Most of the cattle bones (apart from the jaw-fragments) come from relatively beefy regions of the body, one piece even showing usage (cut and teeth marks on the broken shin bone), and one of the pig bones (the radius) also bears gnaw marks. On the other side, the skull fragments of the young foal can hardly be considered food remains.

Domestic cattle (*Bos taurus*). The most interesting thing about the 5 pieces coming from this species was that we could easily identify that such a small number of fragments belonged to at least three different individuals: one juvenile, one subadult and an adult. All of the remains are probably kitchen remains, a fact attested also by the gnawing and cut marks on the left shin bone (Figure 1). The gnaw marks were probably made by a dog, and the bone, considering its state, was cracked for the marrow inside.

Domestic pig (*Sus scrofa domesticus*). One of the two bones belonging to this species is a skull fragment (*processus supraacusticus*), the other is the diaphysial fragment of a *radius*, with gnaw marks (Figure 2). According to these facts, the bones seem to be kitchen wastes, the gnaw marks being produced by a dog. None of the bones, however, allow us to

determine the age of the animal. At the same time, the *radius* comes from a region that bears meat of quality B, and the skull fragment from a region with meat of quality C[1].

Horse (*Equus caballus*). The 47 pieces of the foal's skull is moderately weathered, and the identifiable pieces tell us that they belong to a 1-1.5 year old animal, with calf's teeth incisors, and because of the fragmentation, one of the permanent, still in growth, but not yet erupted incisor is visible. The skull pieces show no cut or teeth marks, but on the occipital bone a small burning (Figure 2) can be noticed. Considering this information, the skull is not kitchen waste, but since the pit held only the head, about the other parts of the animal the same thing cannot be said.

One of the two ribs belonging to the small-medium sized mammals also shows cut marks. These bones probably belonged to the above mentioned pig.

During the analysis of the archaeological finds a question arose, whether the deposits in the pit in matter are sacrificial or common, profane. If we were to judge only by the animal bones, we would be in the same situation, since these hold no more specific information than the archaeological material.

About identifying the ritual aspect of animal bone deposits, J.D. Hill offers us a comprehensive study[2], analyzing the limits of the expression *ritual deposition*, and especially its definition, its necessity as a notion.

According to the researcher's writing, in England, mostly at Early Iron Age sites there frequently occur some finds that archaeologists call *special animal deposits*. These are complete or partly complete skeletons, joint limbs and whole skulls which turned up in places close to the household along with material labeled as rubbish, and no buildings with primarily ritual functions, such as temples or tombs are found nearby[3].

After analyzing the quality and quantity of the bones and the archaeological material found near these animal remains, respectively the way, system, recurrence and periodicity of their deposition, the author concludes that neither the contents of the pit, nor its location at the site can provide conclusive arguments about the ritual aspect[4]. The word *ritual*, however popular it may be among archaeologists, does not cover a well circumscribed action, and to universally define the notion, is virtually impossible.

Conclusions:

The faunal remains found in the Early Iron Age pit, apart from the fragments belonging to the foal's skull, are most likely all kitchen waste. Most of these cattle and pig bones come from the moderately meaty (quality B) parts of the body.

The five pieces of cattle bones belong to at least three individuals, with three different ages: juvenile, subadult and adult, while some of them–along with the pig bones–bear cut and teeth marks. On one hand, the presence of the juvenile individual suggests a meat-centered community, on the other hand, though, the slaughtering of subadult and adult animals reveals a growth where secondary products (e.g. milk and field work) are more important. At the same time, the bones of the older individuals also belong to the meaty regions (quality A and B) of the body, which means that the animals kept for milk and used for work–in the most natural way–end up as food.

The presence of the foal skull breaks the pattern of animal remains resulting from food, since it has no gnawing or cut marks. Even the partially burnt occipital bone is no proof for long lasting burning, but more likely a brief contact with fire.

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[1] Uerpmann 1973, 316.
[2] Hill 1996, 17-32.
[3] Hill 1996, 18.
[4] Hill 1996, 28.

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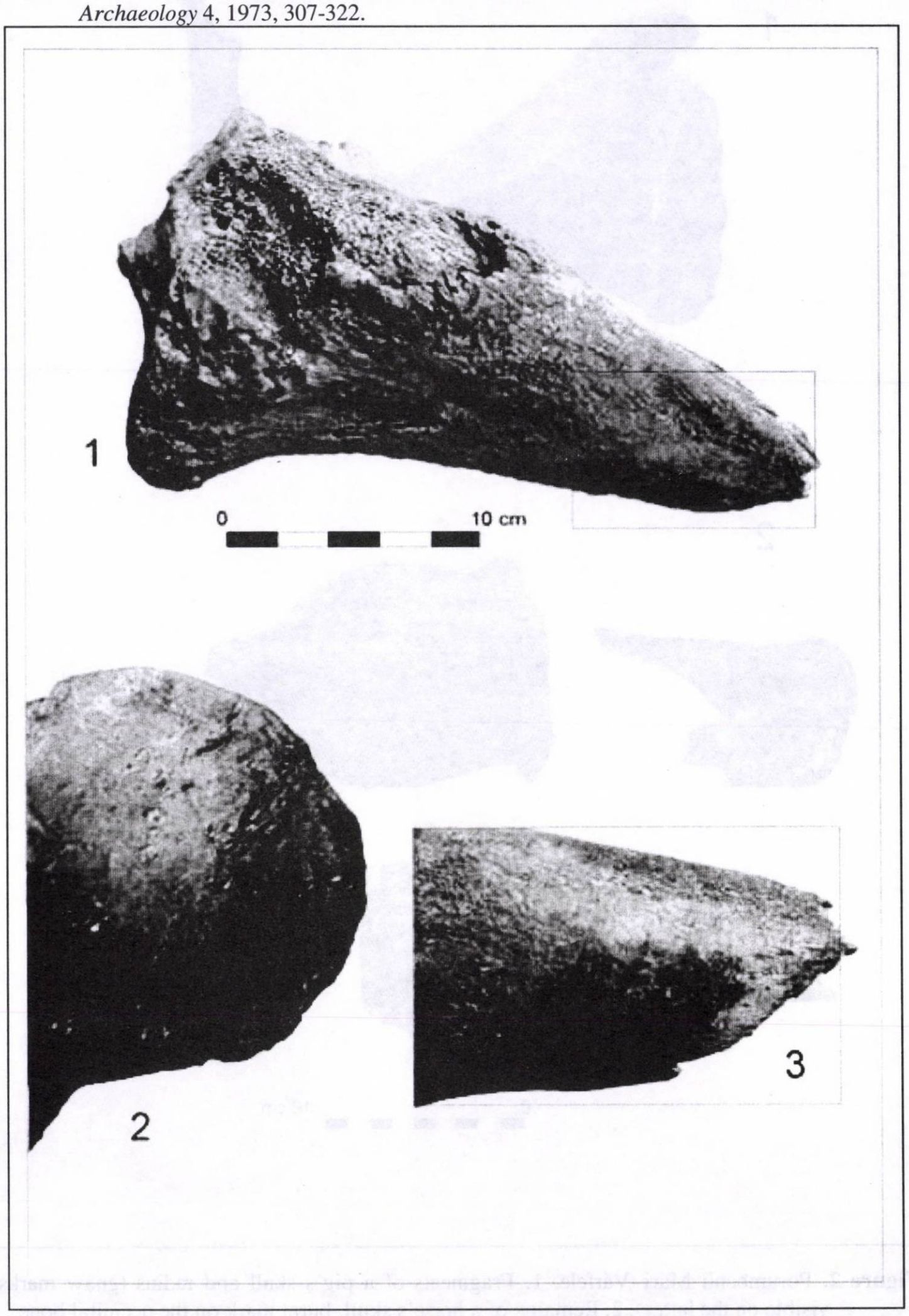

Figure 1. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. 1. Cattle shin-bone. 2. Cut marks on the proximal epiphysis of the cattle shin bone. 3. Gnaw marks on the diaphysis of the shin bone.

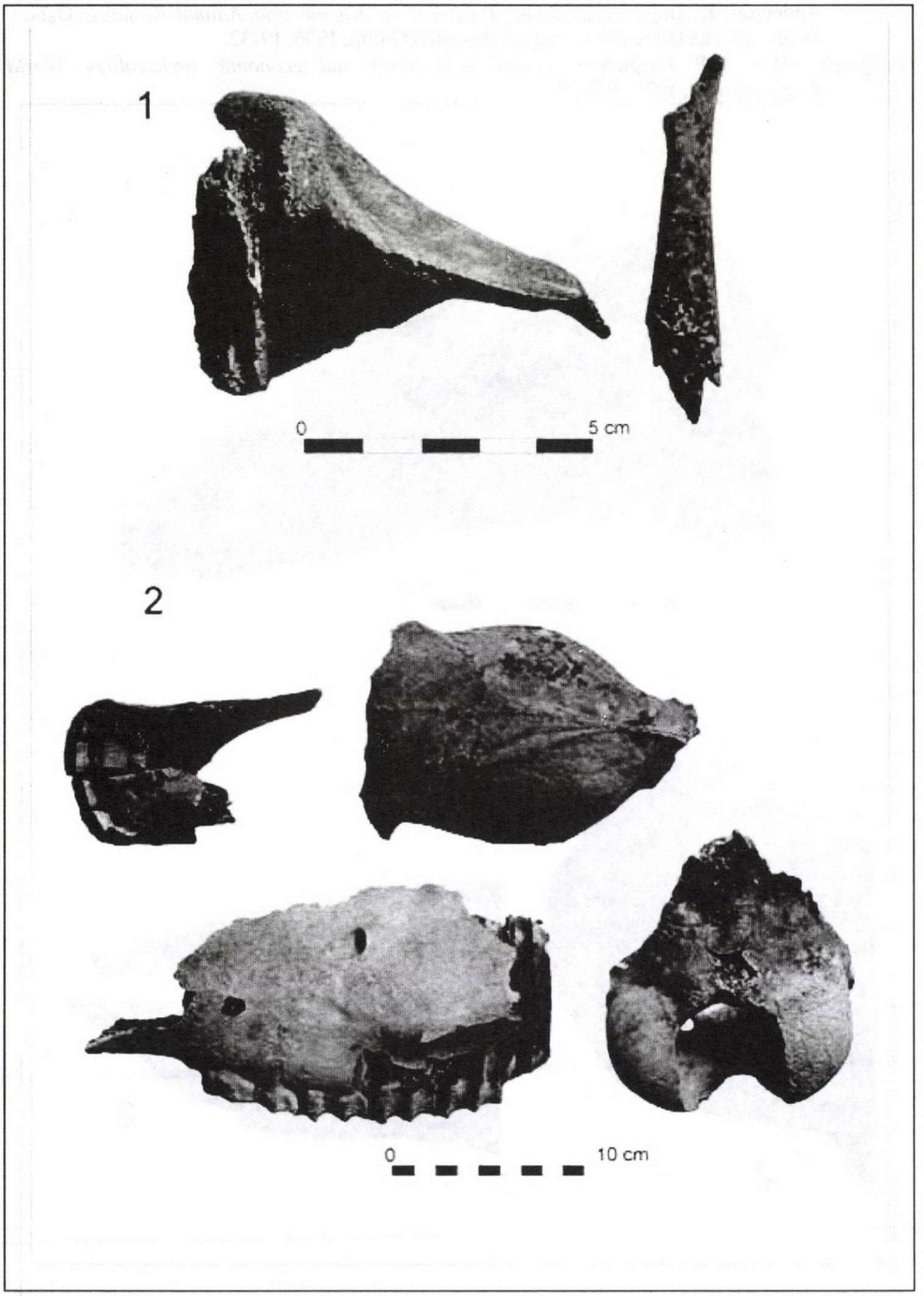

Figure 2. Porumbenii Mari–Várfele. 1. Fragments of a pig's skull and radius (gnaw marks visible on the latter). 2. Remains of a horse's skull, burnt mark on the occipital bone.

The Late Bronze Age in Transylvania
(With primary focus on the central and Southern areas)

Horia Ciugudean

This study aims at reviewing the chronology and the content of the Late Bronze Age in Transylvania. The two points can only be analyzed in connection to the moment when the Wietenberg culture, which has shaped the Middle Bronze Age in the Carpathian Basin, ceased its evolution.

The late or final phase of the Wietenberg culture has been intensely debated during the last decades[1]. Upon the publication of the Cluj-Becaş settlement, Fl. Gogâltan has started an analysis and inventory of Wietenberg sites where the pottery with wide stitches pattern ("breite Absatzstich") appears[2]. He finds it defining for the Wietenberg IV phase, which he describes as "a synthesis of local Wietenberg III and external (Suciu de Sus II and late Otomani) elements". He also estimates that the phenomenon occurred during the Reinecke Bronze C period, to which Noua-type artefacts were added in the Bronze D stage[3]. However, M. Rotea separated this synthesis phenomenon from the evolution of the Wietenberg culture, establishing it as a separate cultural group under the name of "Bădeni III–Deva"[4]. Whereas part of his assumptions on imports and the early rise of the Otomani culture in the Wietenberg space are valid[5], his interpretation of the Bădeni finds is primarily flawed[6]. Rotea's stratigraphic analysis of the Bădeni site in fact contradicts some statements made in the same study, such as the fact that "only in Wietenberg IV settlements (Bădeni III-Deva, according to current dating) do we notice considerable amounts of Otomani artefacts"[7].

On the basis of new research, N. Boroffka has also separated a late Wietenberg phase (labelled as "D", according to his system), characterized by the "breite Absatzstich" technique. He underlines the importance of the Bădeni site, where a connection between the Unterradl type needle and the Wietenberg IV finds has been proposed. Furthermore, Boroffka turns his attention to the Band necropolis, where in grave 2 he notices the coexistence of a late Wietenberg lobed bowl with typical Noua cups[8].

The publication of the finds from the Măhăceni and Geoagiu de Sus ritual pits has provided us with the opportunity to fully discard the notion of „Bădeni III–Deva group" and to redefine the content of the late Wietenberg phase (IV according to Chidioşan or D after Boroffka)[9]. New connections between late Wietenberg and Noua finds have been highlighted,

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[1] The first official reference was made by M. Rusu, who connected several sites, as well as hoards belonging to the Uriu-Domăneşti series, to what he called "the late Wietenberg stage" (Rusu 1964, 246-247). D. Berciu has delineated a "phase IV", without however analyzing its content (Berciu 1966, 193). T. Soroceanu was the next to contribute, by noting a decline in the pottery quality produced and a diminution in the range of decoration patterns used at that time. He also signalled the coexistence of Wietenberg finds and Noua, Suciu de Sus or Otomani III artefacts within several sites (Soroceanu-Istrate 1975, 25; Soroceanu 1973; Soroceanu-Retegan 1981, 206, notes 55-58). N. Chidioşan was the one to isolate a Wietenberg IV phase (missing in fact on the Derşida site!), which he defined on the basis of the elements identified by Soroceanu, and also of the successive wide stitches pattern (Chidioşan 1980, 81-84). I. Andriţoiu further analyzed the features of the Phase IV in South-Western Transylvania, by highlighting the presence of new techniques and decorative patterns, as well as of late Otomani or "post-Otomani III" artefacts (Andriţoiu 1992, 53-54).

[2] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 10-11, 13-14.

[3] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 12.

[4] Rotea 1994.

[5] Mainly in the case of the thesis according to which some Otomani II finds were present in the Wietenberg communities (acc. to Lazarovici 1971, 78; see also Andriţoiu 1992, 93), and when some discoveries from South-Western Transylvania have been assigned to the Otomani III culture (Andriţoiu 1992, 55-56, 60-61). See Rotea 1994, 40-42.

[6] Rotea hypothesizes on the presence of a Bădeni II level (Wietenberg with Otomani imports), followed by a Bădeni III stage (identified on the basis of the finds from pit F). He jointly discusses Wietenberg IV pottery decorated with wide stitches and pottery with brushed surface, whereas the latter actually belongs to a later settlement level.

[7] Rotea 1994, 44.

[8] Boroffka 1994, 251.

[9] Ciugudean 1997; idem 1999.

supporting the earlier arrival of this culture in Transylvania[10]. From a chronological point of view however, we cannot extend the evolution of the Wietenberg culture beyond the end of the Reinecke Bronze C period[11].

I. Bejinariu was the next to enlarge upon the late Wietenberg finds through the publication of several sites from the Şimleu Depression[12]. In the Crasna site, he identified two levels - a lower late Wietenberg one and an upper one belonging to the Cehăluţ group[13]. This stratigraphic interpretation has been however quite controversial among some researchers[14].

The publication of the Căşeiu finds[15] has reopened the debate on the "cohabitation of late Wietenberg and Noua communities"[16]. According to F. Gogâltan, such a cultural phenomenon would be typical of Late Bronze II in Central Transylvania[17]. More recently, this assumed synthesis has been tagged as "Gligoreşti-type discoveries" or the "Gligoreşti group"[18]. This new entity obviously comes to replace what M. Rotea had previously called the „Bădeni III–Deva group", whose sites were also partially claimed[19]. The issue raised by this new group is that, although at least in theory it does not replace the Wietenberg IV phase[20], it inevitably splits its territory. Furthermore, just like the previous proposal, it also undermines the definition of the Wietenberg IV phase. There is a notable difference between the "cohabitation" between the late Wietenberg and Noua communities, and a cultural synthesis, which might also call for a reassessment of the dating.

The exact timing of the diffusion of the first Noua elements in Transylvania is far from being fixed, although several recent finds seem to point to a much earlier date than assumed initially. The new excavations in the Rotbav settlement have pointed towards an overlapping of the Wietenberg III phase and the Noua culture, as the latter is present with three distinct settlement levels[21]. The stratigraphical analysis from Rotbav further confirms the fact that in Southern Transylvania, which was the primary area populated by Noua communities within the region, the evolution of the Wietenberg culture ceased towards the end of phase III (C), as the Wietenberg population migrated towards Central and Western Transylvania. The maps showing the distribution of Wietenberg IV pottery with "breite Absatzstich" patterns[22] prove the same point, as they do not signal its presence in the Southern and South-Eastern Transylvania[23].

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[10] Ciugudean 1997, 79-80.
[11] Ciugudean 1997, 81.
[12] Bejinariu 2001; Bejinariu–Lakó 2000; Bejinariu–Lakó–Sana 2004.
[13] Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, 174-175.
[14] C. Kacsó thinks the lower level from Crasna actually belongs to the Wietenberg III phase, while Witenberg IV materials must be related to the upper Cehăluţ level (Kacsó 2003, 84).
[15] Gogâltan–Isac 1995; Gogâltan 2001.
[16] The issue concerning the relation between the Wietenberg and Noua cultures has been intensely debated. Major promoters of the cohabitation hypothesis are Florescu 1964, 196-198; Rusu 1964, 247-248; Horedt 1967, 139-141; Soroceanu 1973, 498-500 and pl. XI; Soroceanu–Retegan 1981, 206; Andriţoiu 1986, 41-43; idem 1992, 67-68; Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 128, 134; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, pl. 13; Boroffka 1994, 275, 283-284, 288 and map 58; Ciugudean 1997, 79-80. A different point of view has been expressed by Al. Vulpe (1996, 40, note 20)
[17] Gogâltan 2001, 198; same opinion at Popa - Râza 2009, 37.
[18] Gogâltan–Aldea–Ursuţiu 2004, 73-74; Gogâltan 2009, 119. Unfortunately, on the regrettable pattern of the "Copăceni group", the Gligoreşti group has also been put forth without the basis of the publication of a single closed complex from the eponymous site. There are however two initial excavation reports (Gogâltan–Florea 1994; Gogâltan–Aldea–Ursuţiu 2004).
[19] The reinterpretation of the Palatca site is to be noted here. Rotea considered it to be representative for the Bădeni III–Deva group (Rotea 1997), whereas Gogâltan links it to the Gligoreşti group (Gogâltan 2009, 119).
[20] Gogâltan 2001, 196.
[21] Vulpe et al. 2008, 262-263; idem 2009, 187-188; vezi and Dietrich L–O 2007.
[22] Gogâltan–Cociş-Paki 1992, pl. 13; Boroffka 1994, pl. 39.
[23] An exception is the Mereşti Cave, N. Boroffka publishing pottery decorated with wide stitches found here (Boroffka 1994, pl. 91/5-14). Noua finds have also been signalled (Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 141, nr. 101, with older literature), which could be crucial for understanding the presence of late Wietenberg pottery in Southern Transylvania. Nonetheless, this site (missing from the map published by Fl. Gogâltan in 1992), does not deeply impact the initial assumption.

The fragment of a Noua-type handle from the Albeşti settlement[24], as well as the Wietenberg III pit, "probably containing Noua elements", from Sighişoara–Dealul Viilor, where a ^{14}C dating indicates the period 1685–1524 BC[25], seem to support the existence of contacts between Wietenberg III (C) and Noua cultures. N. Boroffka links both finds as well as the association of Noua, Monteoru IIb/Balinteşti and probably Wietenberg C pottery in the lower levels (0-1) from the Ţichindeal site[26], to the arrival of the Noua communities in Transylvania (16th century BC, according to him). I. Motzoi-Chicideanu[27] and more recently and very clearly, Fl. Gogâltan[28] have endorsed this hypothesis. V. Cavruc, on the other hand, supports the 15th century BC as the time of the expansion of the Noua culture in Transylvania[29]. Moreover, upon the publication of the Ţichindeal finds N. Boroffka promote a very early dating, but also left room for the possible corrections that would be triggered by any new finds[30]. Such reassessments have become imminent with the recent publication of the ^{14}C dates from the Noua site of Miciurin–Odaia, located east of the Prut River, in Moldavia. Most of them point to the period 1400-1100 BC, and only a single sample goes as far back as the final third of the 16th century BC[31].

A second set of Wietenberg–Noua connections, with much better stratigraphic references, can be established within the late Wietenberg phase (IV or D). Most notable here are the Band–Omláshegy graves[32], where a late Wietenberg bowl (pl. III/3) appear next to tipical Noua cups (pl. III/1) or the ritual pit from Măhăceni (pl. II), where a typical Noua handle (pl. II/8) is associated with Wietenberg IV and Cehăluţ pottery.

Upon looking at a map of Noua and late Wietenberg sites (fig. 1), it becomes obvious that there are very few Noua finds on the right bank of the Mureş river, between Unirea/Ocna Mureş and Deva. In fact, the only important one is located in Teiuş, i.e. the two Noua necropoles from "Cetăţuie"[33] and "Sub Drum"[34]. Furthermore, we could note only grave at Alba Iulia[35] and a Noua-type vessel from Şard, of which no other details are known[36]. Last but not least, accidental pottery fragments have been spotted in Aiud[37] and Aiudul de Sus[38]. In contrast with such sporadic Noua finds there are as many as 14 late Wietenberg sites on the Mureş river meadow and on the hills surrounding its effluents, as well as on locations over 1,000 metres high in the Trascău Mountains. In an array from south to north, we can mention the settlements from Ardeu[39], Blandiana[40], Alba Iulia–Ijac[41], Ampoiţa[42], Ţelna[43], Piatra

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[24] Baltag–Boroffka 1996, fig. 10/3; Gogâltan 2009, 119.

[25] Popa–Boroffka 1996, 55-56; Motzoi-Chicideanu 2004, 82, fig. 19; Gogâltan 2009, 119.

[26] Popa–Boroffka 1996, 52. Unfortunately, the stratigraphy of this settlement does not provide, at least in our opinion, clear conclusions regarding the Wietenberg and Noua pottery association.

[27] Motzoi-Chicideanu 2004, 79-80.

[28] Gogâltan 2009, 119.

[29] Cavruc 1996, 70.

[30] Popa–Boroffka 1996, 56, note 41.

[31] Kaiser–Sava 2009.

[32] Kovács 1913; Florescu 1991, 28, nr. 26, fig. 179; Boroffka 1994, I, 19-20.

[33] Horedt 1953, 708-805; Florescu 1991, 129-130, fig. 168; Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 144, nr. 58a; Sava 2002, 105 -106, pl. 147.

[34] Berciu–Popa 1965; Florescu 1991, 130, fig. 169-170; Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 144, nr. 58b; Sava 2002, 106 -107, pl. 148-149.

[35] As proven by the published finds from Alba Iulia - Ijac, there is no Noua settlement there, but a single Noua-type vessel, probably associated with the Wietenberg IV materials (Ciugudean 1997, 79).

[36] Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 143, nr. 140; Sava 2002, 123-124.

[37] Ciugudean 1978, 44-45, fig. 3/14.

[38] Lazăr 1977, 616, pl. 2/1-4.

[39] Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 44/8-9, 11; Popa - Râza 2009, 37, notes 25-26.

[40] Unpublished materials from the MNUAlba Iulia collection, donated by the former manager of the Alba Iulia museum, Nicolae Josan, who found them in the gerden of his native house.

[41] Ciugudean 1997, 74, fig. 15/1-8; 16/1-8. The settlement that has been already referenced at this location is the one and the same with the settlement at Micesti - Cigaşe, located on the first terrace of the Ampoi River between Alba Iulia and Micesti (the latter recently integrated administratively into the Alba Iulia municipality).

[42] Investigations by H. Ciugudean, A. Gligor, M. Voinaghi 2000-2002; unpublished materials in the collection of the Alba Iulia Museum. See also Ciugudean–Gligor 2001; Ciugudean et al. 1999.

Craivii[44], Cetea[45], Geoagiu de Sus[46], Sântimbru[47], Lopadea Veche[48], Cicău[49], Ormeniş - Gruiul cu mazăre[50], Unirea[51] and Măhăceni[52]. Such an array helps us shape a relatively compact image of the late Wietenberg communities from the right bank of the Mureş river, which clearly delineates them from the Noua sites on the Târnave Plateau[53]. Obreja[54] and Noşlac[55] are the only Wietenberg settlements found on the left bank of the Mureş, with "breite Absatzstich" pattern pottery in such limited amounts that we rather consider these are sites belonging to the end of the Wietenberg III stage, when this type of decoration first appeared[56].

This phenomenon noted on the middle course of the Mureş river is also present between the Arieş and Someşul Mic upper valleys, where sites such as Bădeni[57], Vlaha[58] and Luna de Sus[59] extend the array of late Wietenberg settlements from the right bank of the Mureş river. Another area densely populated by Wietenberg and Noua communities was located around Cluj, which enable us to make a few more remarks on the time connections between the two cultures. A major find close to Cluj that has been scarcely referenced is the one from Floreşti-Polus[60]. Two Late Bronze cemeteries have been excavated here, a late Wietenberg one with over 20 cremation grave, and a Noua one with more than 140 inhumation graves. A chronological link between them remains yet to be established, but the possibility of simultaneity has been put forth[61]. Although only partial, such synchronicity should not be rejected from the very beginning, especially when considering the fact that numerous urns from the cremation pits have patterns characteristic of the late Wietenberg phase, such as the frequent "breite Absatzstich" decoration[62]. We will however wait for the publication of full inventories of the graves from both cemeteries, to see if and how often Wietenberg and Noua pottery appears within the same grave.

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[43] Berciu D–I 1945, fig. 39/6, 41/14-16; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII;

[44] Andriţoiu 1978, 65, pl. 2/1-12, 14; 3/9-17, idem 1992, pl. 24/8-9, 36/21, as well as other unpublished materials from the collection of Alba Iulia museum.

[45] Andriţoiu 1992, pl. 30/13, 31/2-3, 5-6; Boroffka 1994, pl. 22-24 (including illustrations of the materials from phases II–III; the site contains several settlement stages lacking stratigraphy).

[46] Ciugudean 1997, 70-73, fig. 5/2; 6-12.

[47] Berciu–Popa 1962, fig. 4/6; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII;

[48] Ciugudean 1979, 68, fig. 3.

[49] Winkler–Tákacs 1980; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 13 and pl. XIII; Boroffka 1994, pl. 51/9-12, 52/1-10.

[50] Ciugudean 1979, 75, fig. 8.

[51] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII.

[52] Ciugudean 1997, 67-70, fig. 1-5/1;Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII.

[53] I do not imply here that the Mureş River was a remarkable natural border between the two cultural areas, but rather that it played the role of a communication stream enabling relations between communities, as proven by the pottery and other finds.

[54] Soroceanu 1973, pl. IV/3; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII/21.

[55] Soroceanu 1984, pl. XI/5;Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII/20.

[56] Although their observation is correct with regards to the scarcity of this type of decoration in the Derşida III phase, the authors of the 1992 study would rather assign the sites at Noşlac and Obreja to the beginning of phase IV (Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 11-12), unlike N. Boroffka who avoided placing them among the ones that he considered characteristic of the D phase (Boroffka 1994, 251). I put forth a different hypothesis in 1997, when I pointed out the presence of the decoration with wide stitches in the Wietenberg III settlement from Alba Iulia–Viile Maieri. I supported the idea that this kind of decoration was already present in a small amount at the end of phase III (Ciugudean 1997, 79). Furthermore, I believe that the sites dominated by the "Zahnstempelung" decoration and with small amounts of pottery with wide stitches should be assigned to the end of the Wietenberg III (C) phase, all the more since most of them generally lack the typical shapes of phase IV and Suciu de Sus/Late Otomani imports. A similar point of view has been recently expressed with the publication of the Floreşti–Poligon settlement (Nagy 2009, 162). Nonetheless, a divergent opinion was expressed regarding the dating of the Chiheru de Jos site (Berecki 2005, 430).

[57] Lazarovici–Milea 1976.

[58] Stanciu et al. 2006, 398-400.

[59] Nagy 2009, 166.

[60] Polus 2008, 6-7, 19-27; Rotea et al. 2008, 162-165, pl. 3-5 ; Rotea et al. 2008a, 50-56, pl. XIII-XIX.

[61] Rotea et al. 2008, 163.

[62] Polus 2008, catalogue nr. 21, 28-30.

The Noua necropolis from Cluj–Str. Banatului is clearly overlapping an evolved Wietenberg III settlement[63], with no late Wietenberg influences in the grave inventories[64], but there are at least two pots with "brushed" (Besenstrich) pattern[65]. There are no Noua elements present in the Wietenberg IV settlements from Cluj–Becaş[66] and Cluj–Mânăştur[67], which points to the fact that the Noua communities have reached the Someşul Mic valley at a later date. The late Wietenberg cremation graves from Floreşti-Polus prove the same aspect, as they either precede or are simultaneous[68] with the Noua necropolis from the same location. Both options would place the Cluj-Strada Banatului necropolis at a later date, as also proven by the decoration patterns present: conical protuberances, surrounded by semicircular grooves (pl.VI/2) and especially narrow grooves, placed wide apart on the neck of the cups (pl. VI/3).

An analogy to the Mureş and Arieş distribution can be noticed in the upper basin of the Someşul Mic river, where the late Wietenberg settlements are extremely numerous, such as the ones from Vişlea[69], Şardu[70], Gilău[71], Deuş[72] and Gârbău[73]. To be noted here is the Deuş site, where late Bronze finds appear in three different locations. The first one is "Lunga", already referenced in publications, but whose dating is still a matter of controversy[74]. The second one is "La Chicipod", which T. Soroceanu dates as Wietenberg IV, but which remains unpublished[75]. Finally, the third location is that of "Apreşul de Jos", which M. Wittenberger considers to be a Noua site, although Cehăluţ type pottery was also found there[76]. The presence of Noua pottery in two sites belonging to different periods ("Lunga" = Wietenberg IV and "Apreşul de Jos" = post-Wietenberg IV) brings further details to the evolution of this culture in time in Transylvania, an aspect that will be discussed further in this study.

In the Someş Plateau the late Wietenberg communities coexist with the Noua newcomers, as proven by settlements such as the ones from Iclod[77], Nicula[78], Chintelnic[79], Coldău[80], Ciceu-Corabia[81], Cepari[82] or Bistriţa-Cighir[83], although the stratigraphic proofs are not very consistent[84]. There are no more late Wietenberg sites to be found north of Dej, as the Someş valley belongs to the Suciu de Sus II-Lăpuş I area[85]. Nonetheless, the isolated presence

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[63] Rotea - Wittenberger 1999; Wittenberger 2006a. I do not believe that pit no. 4 belongs to the Late Wietenberg phase, as the isolated presence of a fragment decorated with wide, successive pricks indicates the end of phase III (C), as mentioned above (note 63).

[64] Soroceanu 1973, 498-500; Sava 2002, 100-103, pl. 137-141/1-9.

[65] Sava 2002, pl. 140/6-7.

[66] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992.

[67] Rotea 1994, 43, pl. VI; Nagy 2009, 164.

[68] Rotea et al. 2008, 163.

[69] Boroffka 1994, 91, nr. 514, pl. 144/8-12, 145; idem 1999, 119, fig. 1/5-6; 3/6-7, 9; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII; Nagy 2009, 167.

[70] Boroffka 1994, 71-72, nr. 370, pl. 116/7-9.

[71] Boroffka 1994, 45-46, nr. 207, pl. 81/9, 82/13-14; idem 1999, fig. 2/6; Nagy 2009, 166.

[72] Lazarovici 1971.

[73] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII; Boroffka 1994, 46, nr. 209, pl. 82/1-12; idem 1999, 119, fig. 2/2, 7, 9.

[74] Gh. Lazarovici assigns the site to the Otomani III culture, but also points out the presence of Wietenberg and even Suciu de Sus elements (Lazarovici 1971, 77-79). N. Boroffka supports this view, but is reserved as concerns the Suciu elements (Boroffka 1994, 38, no. 164) and does not include the site among the typical D phase ones. Other researchers have considered the site to be a Late Wietenberg one (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 110; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 12). A recent field survey resulted in the recovery of some pottery fragments, including handles with typical Noua buttons (Wittenberger 2006, 26).

[75] Boroffka 1994, 38, nr. 163.

[76] Excavations by M. Wittenberger, M. Rotea (2000 –2001). Unpublished finds in the MNIT Cluj-Napoca collections.

[77] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 14 and pl. XIII/14;

[78] Boroffka 1994, 59, nr. 294, pl. 98-99/1-12; idem 1999, 121, fig. 5/8, 10, 12.

[79] Boroffka 1999, 121, fig. 3/3. 5/3-4; Marinescu 1995, 54-55, pl. XIV-XVIII/1-15.

[80] Vlassa 1973; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 13 and pl. XIII/10.

[81] Boroffka 1994, 30, pl. 52/11-12, 53-59; idem 1999, 119, 121, fig. 1/4, 7-9, 11, 4/1, 3-5, 7, 9, 11, 13; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 13 and pl. XIII/7.

[82] Roska 1944, 24, fig. 6/3, 6; Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 13 and pl. XIII/5; Boroffka 1994, 28, nr. 104.

[83] Boroffka 1994, 23, nr. 58, pl. 12; Marinescu 1995, 52.

[84] In most cases, the published materials originate from field surveys; therefore the associations made can be the accidental results of deep farm workings that affected sites with several habitation levels (Marinescu 1993; idem 1995).

[85] Kácso 1994, 9, note 2; idem 2003, 128; Gogâltan 2001, 195.

of a pottery fragment decorated with "breite Absatzstich" in the Căşei settlement[86] represents a mark for establishing a relative chronology for the two neighbouring cultures.

The Transylvanian Plain, similarly to the Târnava Plateau, seems to have been subject to the almost full control of the Noua communities, and the Palatca site[87] represents only a singular case of interference with the late Wietenberg culture from the Someşul Mic valley. The presence of pottery with wide stitches in the Aiton-Deasupra Morii site[88] (South-East of Cluj) do not alter considerably the local cultural landscape.

Looking to the location of late Wietenberg sites, it is obvious that most of them have a different position than the ones belonging to previous phase (III Chidioşan or C Boroffka). These small-scale movements in the habitation area could be connected to the Noua penetration in Eastern Transylvania. However, the high frequency of Suciu de Sus and/or Cehăluţ pottery imports also points towards North-Western disturbances, maybe associated with the expansion of the Carpathian Tumulus Culture[89]. It is important to stress the fact that only Suciu de Sus incised pottery is present in most of the Wietenberg IV sites, as C. Kacsó already noticed[90]. It is not easy to make a clear distinction between the Suciu de Sus and Cehăluţ pottery often mixed in late Wietenberg complexes from central and South-Western Transylvania. However, a Suciu de Sus biconical pot with incised decoration and protuberances could be identified in the Geoagiu de Sus pit (pl. I/1), with parallels both in Suciu de Sus I[91] and Otomani IIIb[92] sites. Several Cehăluţ-type bowls are to be found in the Măhăceni ritual pit (pl. II/3-4, 6), one of them (pl. II/6) with perfect parallels in the Acâş-Crasna Veche site[93]. A perforated lid (?) from the same Măhăceni pit[94] has an almost identical parallel in the Lucăceni site[95]. Cehăluţ-type bowls with large conical knobs are widespread in the late Wietenberg sites[96], but we would like to stress the replacement of grooves with „Zahnstempelung" bands in the Alba Iulia–Ijac site.[97] Together with the arcades decorated in the "Zahnstempelung" technique from Aiton "Locul lui Poţu" site[98], these finds are clear proofs for the reproduction of Cehăluţ-type motifs and shapes in a traditional Wietenberg technique. This is just one side of the complex cultural interferences that took place during the Late Bronze I period in Central and Southern Transylvania. In the Haţeg region, the Wietenberg culture came into contact with Balta Sărată group[99], a relation which evolved up to phase IV (D), as the finds from the Cauce Cave seems to illustrate[100]. The fragment of a typical Noua kantharos with disc-shaped button on its handle was also found in the same site[101].

The finds attributed to the late Wietenberg culture are far from being homogenous and the nature and proportion of new (foreign) elements differ considerably from one site to the other. Could such differences be interpreted in terms of chronology or rather in terms of cultural identity? We do expect in the near future not only to distinguish an internal evolution

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[86] Gogâltan 2001, 194, pl. V/6.
[87] First assigned to the Bădeni III–Deva group by the author of the excavation (Rotea 1997), the site has been recently included by Fl. Gogâltan in his Gligoreşti group (Gogâltan 2009, 119).
[88] Gogâltan–Cociş–Paki 1992, 13 and pl. XIII/1.
[89] Horedt 1967a, 44-45;
[90] Kacsó 2007, 54.
[91] Bader 1978, pl. 44/9, 11; Pop 2009, pl. 37/1.
[92] Németi–Molnár 2007, pl. 78.
[93] Kacsó 1997, pl. VII/9.
[94] Ciugudean 1997, fig. 2/3.
[95] Németi 209, pl. III/1.
[96] Boroffka 1999, 121-123.
[97] Ciugudean 1997, fig. 16/1.
[98] Boroffka 1999, 119, fig. 1/2-3.
[99] Andriţoiu 1992, 48, pl. 36/16-20; Popa 2005, 133-138 (with the complete literature).
[100] Luca et al. 2005, 44-47, pl. XIV/4-7; XV/2-5, 9; XVII/2, 4; XVIII/4-6; XIX/1-2; XXIII/16-17; XXIV/6; XXV/2; XXVI/1-4.
[101] Luca et al. 2005, 48, pl. XIV/2 (this is probably the most South-Western discovery of such kind in the Transylvanian area).

inside the Wietenberg IV (D) phase but also to fix a clear border towards other neighbouring Late Bronze cultures/groups, not so well defined in this moment[102].

Although we do accept the temporary existence of an overlapping area between the Wietenberg and Noua cultures and the possible use of the "Gligoreşti-type finds" name for the sites where this phenomenon is dominant[103], this cannot be a substitute for the evolution of the Noua culture throughout the Reinecke Bronze D time. The distinct evolution of the Noua culture on the middle course of the Mureş river is an archaeological fact which challenges Fl. Gogâltan's views for the Late Bronze Age II[104]. The presence in this area of the Noua necropolis from Moreşti-Hulă[105], where Wietenberg elements are completely absent, as well as that of the Noua graves from Bogata de Mureş[106], Cipău[107], Iernut[108], Luduş[109] and Tăureni[110], invalidates the idea of a coexistence with the "Gligoreşti group"[111]. We do not believe that such 'uncontaminated' Noua finds could be interpreted as belonging to an early stage, as they are also to be found as far as Vinţu de Jos in South-Western Transylvania[112]. Wietenberg IV finds have been brought to light in the same area[113], predating the Noua settlement from Vinţu de Jos - Deasupra Satului, where such influences are no longer present (pl.V).

This distinct and long evolution of the Noua culture, slightly ignored in the most recent views on Transylvanian Late Bronze[114], makes us stress the need for improving both the periodisation and chronology of the Noua culture. To the first two phases (Noua I and II) initially proposed by A. C. Florescu[115] and largely accepted by other archaeologists[116], a third phase (Noua III) should be added for Southern Transylvania, as K. Horedt already suggested[117].

The Noua I phase, characterized by the presence of Wietenberg and Monteoru elements, overlaps with the Wietenberg IV (D) phase, although the early contacts had been already established by the end of phase III (C)[118]. The early Noua communities that penetrated west to the Carpathians brought with them late Monteoru pottery, as the finds from the Ţichindeal settlement (levels 0-1) clearly showed (pl. IV/1-2, 6)[119]. According to Florescu, such Monteoru elements seem to be also present in the graves from Band[120], which could be a

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[102] I am thinking first of all to the late Otomani (IIIB), Suciu de Sus II, early Cehăluţ and secondly to the Balta Sărată III(-IV) or the so-called Păuliş group.

[103] I would rather use this denomination, as it has primarily a territorial and less cultural connotation, instead of that of "Gligoreşti group".

[104] Gogâltan 2009, 121-122.

[105] Horedt 1979, 25-33.

[106] Florescu 1991, 37, nr. 73, fig. 174/2, 4, 6.

[107] Vlassa 1961, 37-38, fig. 9/5, 7, 9.

[108] Florescu 1991, 81, nr. 289, pl. 178/6, 180/2, 3.

[109] Florescu 1991, 88, nr. 322.

[110] Lazăr 1997, 505-506.

[111] Fl. Gogâltan's arguments that such Noua communities would be endowed by "a certain degree of conservative mentality", which may explain the absence of Wietenberg elements (Gogâltan 2009, 121) are not convincing.

[112] As proven by the research undergone in the Vinţu de Jos –Deasupra Satului site (Andriţoiu–Popa - Simina 2004, 152, pl. XVII-XVIII).

[113] Schroller 1933, 74, nr. 21, pl. 8/2; Boroffka 1994, 91, nr. 511, pl. 141/9-10.

[114] Gogâltan 2009, 121-123.

[115] Florescu 1964, 196-198 and the chronological table at page 200. E. Sava has recently rejected such a periodisation, favouring regional differences, rather than chronological ones (Sava 2002, 213-220).

[116] Székely 1965, 21-32; Andriţoiu 1992, 67-69;

[117] Horedt 1967, 152-153. The idea of a late Noua phase was also supported by other authors: Vasiliev 1983, 38-39; Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 134; Wittenberger 1994, 155; Rotea et al. 2008a, 54.

[118] N. Boroffka's distribution map (1994, map 57) clearly proves that South-Eastern Transylvania is densely covered by Wietenberg C sites, which means that the Noua communities penetrated the area by the end of this phase, and not before. Moreover, the Albeşti settlement comes to endorse the same point, as it was the discovery site of a Noua type handle and Wietenberg pottery with shapes and decorations specific to the full-developed C phase (III) (Baltag–Boroffka 1996, 391 and fig. 6-8/2).

[119] Popa–Boroffka 1996, 53.

[120] Florescu 1991, 26, fig. 179/1-2, 4.

proof for the presence of the early Noua groups on the upper Mureş valley, where late Wietenberg communities were still active by that time[121].

After a short period of cohabitation with the late Wietenberg communities, the Noua culture evolved into phase II, according to the older literature[122], as proven by the finds from Sighişoara-Dealul Viilor[123], Vinţu de Jos[124], Moreşti-Hulă[125] or Cluj–Str. Banatului[126]. The Şoimuş graves (?)[127] delivered black polished cups with everted rim and single high handle (pl. VI/5) with parallels in the Olteni settlement (pl. VIII/7)[128], in the Cehăluţ[129] and Igriţa areas[130], as well as in the Lăpuş cemetery[131]. The second cup from Şoimuş (pl. VI/6), with oval grooves separated by knobs on the shoulder and narrow horizontal grooves on the base of its handle, has close parallels in the Mera settlement[132] and in the Jigodin cemetery (pl. IX/4). Some complexes in the Vinţu de Jos settlement (pit 3/SIVB)[133] lack classical Noua elements, but contain small biconical cups with band handles, sometimes with knobs on their shoulder[134], quite similar to the ones from the late Noua settlement in Olteni (pl. VI/7, VIII/2) or in the Cehăluţ area[135]. In terms of patterns and decoration, the pottery with "Besenstrich" becomes more frequent (pl. V/3, 14). I. Motzoi-Chicideanu has closely analyzed this late Bronze Age decoration, assigning it as an import from the Suciu de Sus and Piliny cultures, which eventually exported it outside the Carpathians, into the late Monteoru and Noua communities[136].

The Noua II phase dates from the post-Wietenberg IV period and is contemporary to late Suciu de Sus (phase IIb)[137] and the Cehăluţ group[138]. The interactions between late Suciu de Sus–Lăpuş I and the Noua II folks may explain the two-handled cups with buttons from the Lăpuş cemetery[139], as well as the presence of Eastern-type bronzes in the Suciu de Sus area[140].

Towards the end, the Noua culture goes through a real phenomenon of pottery "hallstattization"[141], already identified by K. Horedt, who put forth the name of "Noua-Teiuş" for this late phase (Noua III) that extends until the beginning of Ha A[142]. A finer type of strongly polished black pottery appeared and new shapes were developed, such as the cups with disk-shaped buttons on the handles (pl. VIII/5, 10), as noticed in the settlements from Olteni[143] and Feldioara[144]. Similar handles with disk-shaped buttons are known in the Lăpuş

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[121] Petică–Apai 2003.
[122] Florescu 1964, 197-200; Székely 1965, 21-32; Andriţoiu 1992, 67-69.
[123] Boroffka N–R 2006, 576-582, fig. 1075-1077.
[124] Andriţoiu–Popa - Simina 2004, 152-157.
[125] Horedt 1979, 25-33.
[126] Sava 2002, 100-103, pl. 137-141/1-9 ; Wittenberger 2006, 108-126, pl. 67-90.
[127] Ciugudean 2004.
[128] Buzea 2006, pl. VII/7.
[129] Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, fig. 15/1-2; Németi 2009, pl. II/7 (beakers).
[130] Emödi 1997, pl. VII/14-15.
[131] Kácso 1975, fig. 10/3-5.
[132] Wittenberger 2006, 29, pl. 37/2.
[133] The authors of the Vinţu de Jos excavation have in fact dated this complex to the beginning of Ha A, without a clear cultural designation (Andriţoiu–Popa - Simina, 157).
[134] Andriţoiu–Popa–Simina, pl. 21/17, 19.
[135] Németi 2009, pl. II/5 (cups).
[136] Motzoi-Chicideanu 2004, 74-77.
[137] Marta 2009, 94-101. Other recent views upon Suciu de Sus chronology at Kacsó 2004; Pop 2009, 49-50.
[138] Kacsó 1990, 42-45;idem 1997, 88; Németi 2009.
[139] Kacsó 1975, 57, fig. 11/1.
[140] See the "Warzennadeln" hoard in the Suciu de Sus II level from Petea (Marta 2005) or the South-Eastern type of sickles in the Groşii Ţibleşului II hoard (Kacsó 1993, 48).
[141] This term is used to denote the replacement of incised or excised decorations by channelling, a characteristic feature of the following early Hallstatt period.
[142] Horedt 1967, 152-153.
[143] Buzea 2006, pl. VII/5, 9-10.
[144] Florescu 1991, 66, nr. 224, fig. 20.

area too[145]. Other new shapes include the low, flat cups with a single high handle, found in Ţichindeal (pl. IV/8) and Olteni (pl. VIII/9), which find close parallels in the Igriţa[146] and Cehăluţ[147] groups. Another late Noua find is represented by the grave from Târgu Secuiesc[148], the small pot found as grave-good having horizontal grooves on the upper part and vertical perforated knobs on the rim and shoulder (pl. VI/4), with good parallels in a pit from Bistreţ attributed to the Hallstatt A time (Vârtop group)[149]. Moreover, the above-mentioned site, together with the Olteni, Nicoleni and Feldioara settlements, and the upper level (3) from Ţichindeal[150], are representative for the final evolution stage of the Noua culture in Southern Transylvania.

The Noua culture had been put in connection with the bronze hoards of the so-called Ruginoasa-Cara type[151], composed mainly of hook-sickles ("Hackensicheln")[152] and socketed-axes of Transylvanian type. There are also certain bronze ornaments which seem to be favoured by Noua people, like the knobbed pin - "Warzennadel" (pl. XVIII/2, 5)[153], or the pin of Cypriote type - "Zyprische Schleiffennadel" (pl. XVIII/4)[154], although both types were also used by other Bronze Age cultures[155]. The observation is also valid in the case of "Rollennadel"-type (pl. XVIII/1), whose frequency in the Noua sites is quite high[156].

The cultural evolution during the Ha A1 period was already analyzed back in 1994, when the "Cugir-Band group" had been defined[157]. The group has been accepted and used by most researchers who have addressed the late Bronze Age in Transylvania[158]. Whereas the finds from the Cugir-Band group were initially scarce, their number progressively grew with the accidental discoveries of the vessels from Vişinelu (com. Sărmaşu, jud. Mureş)[159] and the Oarda-"Bulza" settlement[160], to which were more recently added the new sites from Miceşti-Cigaşe[161], Floreşti-Polus[162], Aurel Vlaicu[163] and Pianu de Jos[164] (fig. 2). Moreover, we would also include here several complexes from Bădeni (pl. X), initially attributed to the existing Wietenberg settlement[165], but which are clearly distinguishable now due to their shape, combed patterns, barbotine covering and the graphite pottery[166]. The bronze pin with a decorated biconical head (pl. XVIII/7) should most likely be attributed to the same horizon, and not to the late Wietenberg level, as previously supposed[167]. Another site where we can

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[145] Kácso 1975, fig. 16/1-5; Kácso 2003, pl. XIV/7.
[146] Chidioşan–Emödi 1982, fig. 5/4; Emödi 1997, fig. 5/10, 7/15.
[147] Ignat 1984, pl. VI/6.
[148] Kindly information from L. Medér (Muzeul Naţional Secuiesc Sf. Gheorghe).
[149] Motzoi-Chicideanu 2003, 208, fig. 9/1. For other parallels of the decoration pattern see Ciugudean-Aldea 2005, 108.
[150] Popa–Boroffka 1996, 54-55, fig. 1/5-7; 2/2; 3/1, 3; 6/1, 5-6; 7/1-6.
[151] Kacsó 1990a, 246; for the relation between Noua culture and Transylvanian bronze hoards see also Wittenberger 2009, 16-20.
[152] The most recent analysis of hook sickle hoards at Rezi 2009. For the Eastern origin of hook sickles see Dergacev 1997, 147.
[153] The first distribution list and chronological considerations at Horedt 1953, 808-810, fig. 12; see also Hochstetter 1981; Sava 2002, 184-185.
[154] Dietrich 2009, 97-102.
[155] Marta 2005, 80, 83-84; Dietrich 2009, 99-100.
[156] Sava 2002, 183-184; Dietrich L–O. 2007, 90-92, 95-97.
[157] Ciugudean 1994, 72.
[158] Gumă 1997, 67; Pare 1999, 419, note 384, 422, table 7; Popa 2000, 79; Rustoiu 2000, 59; Gogâltan 2001, 198; Marta 2003, 360; Gogâltan 2009, 122. For a different opinion see Wittenberger 1994,
[159] Lazăr 1997, 507, pl. 1/3-5, 2/3-5.
[160] Rustoiu 2000.
[161] Bălan 2008.
[162] Information kindly provided by A. Ursuţiu, Institutul de Arheologie şi Istoria Artei Cluj-Napoca.
[163] Popa 2008.
[164] Kindly information I. Lascu and Cr. Fântâneanu (unpublished excavation 2009-2010).
[165] Lazarovici–Milea 1976, 14, type III; M. Rotea has used part of these finds, mixing them with the late Wietenberg ones, in order to define his Bădeni III-Deva group (see Rotea 1994, pl. 1/1, 5).
[166] N. Boroffka had it correctly isolated from the Wietenberg materials, but given the limited information available at that time, he was not able to assign it to a certain culture (Boroffka 1994, 17, no. 34, pl. 4/2-5).
[167] Lazarovici–Milea 1976, pl. 5/3; Rotea 1994, pl. I. N. Boroffka has also associated the pin with the Wietenberg IV materials, by identifying it as belonging to the Unterradl type (1994, 251, pl. 3/3).

assume the presence of a Band-Cugir level is that from Buza[168], where a Noua settlement is superposed by an upper level, with bowls and large biconical pots decorated in the lower half in the "Kammstrich" technique[169]. M. Wittenberger had identified a distinct "Buza III" phase, but preferred to attribute it to a new cultural group, which he called "Buza-Teiuş"[170], a nomination rejected by Fl. Gogâltan[171]. Until the full publication of the Buza complexes, the presence of a late Noua level mixed with Band-Cugir elements cannot be completely excluded.

The Late Bronze level from Aiud–Microraion III site (pl. IX) has already been dated in the Halstatt A period[172], however its cultural position is rather unclear. The black polished biconical cup with one (?) handle (pl. IX/2) shows connections in late Noua[173], Cehăluţ[174] and Berkesz[175] group. The two-handled pot (pl. IX/5) has good parallels in the pit 17 from Szigetszentmiklós[176], a complex that offers parallels for the small biconical cup (pl. IX/1)[177]. Conical bowls with tunnel-like handles (pl. IX/7, 9) should be seen in connection with the Tumulus Culture traditions, this type of bowl being found both in the Noua finds from central Transylvania[178] and in the Late Bronze groups from North-Western Romania[179] and Hungary[180]. The presence of the graphite ceramics with vertical striation pattern (pl. IX/8) could be a good reason to connect the Aiud finds, as well as the Cincu-Suseni-type hoard found here[181], with the Band-Cugir group.

The current distribution of Band-Cugir finds covers the middle course of the Mureş river and that of the Someşul Mic river (fig. 2), leaving enough space for the survival of late Noua communities in South-Eastern Transylvania at the beginning of the Ha A1 period, as already stated repeatedly[182]. The presence of vertical "Kammstrich" pattern in Nicoleni (pl. VII/1) and Jigodin (pl. VII/5) sites could be a good evidence for the contacts between the two cultural groups.

The Band-Cugir group has several characteristic shapes, such as the conical cup with a small handle placed under the rim (pl.X/1), the biconical vessels with a straight rim (pl.X/5), the S-shaped pot with two handles originating from the rim (pl.X/11-12), the tronconical bowl with a small tubular handle placed towards the middle part (pl. X/4). In terms of decoration patterns, we have primarily identified the vertical lines made with a comb ("Kammstrich"), an ornament that could be traced from the Baierdorf-Velatice area[183], but also present in some Ha A1 finds from Eastern Hungary, such as Csorva[184], Mende[185] or Szigetszentmiklós[186]. This type of decoration is considerably different from the irregular brushed lines made by brush ("Besenstrich") that are frequent in the Suciu de Sus, Lăpuş and more rarely Noua cultures. Secondly, the barbotine covering is also typical, with vertical stripes drawn with the finger, most often encountered on the pots with two handles (fig. X/11),

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[168] Wittenberger 1994, 151-152, pl. 1-14; idem 1997.
[169] Wittenberger 2006, pl. 11.
[170] Wittenberger 1994, 155.
[171] Gogâltan 2001, 198.
[172] Ciugudean 1978, 40, fig. 2; Ciugudean 1994, 59-60, fig. 1
[173] Buzea 2006, pl. VII/2, 4.
[174] Németi 2009, pl. II/1 (beakers); Nagy–Scholz 2009, Pl. III/4.
[175] Kemenczei 1984, pl. LVII/5-6, 8-9.
[176] Vadász 1992, fig. 3/10.
[177] Vadász 1992, fig. 3/2; 4/3.
[178] Teiuş-Cetăţuie (Florescu 1991, fig. 168/9), Teiuş-Sub Drum (Florescu 1991, fig. 170/14), Nicoleni (Cavruc 1999, fig. 5/8).
[179] Ignat 1984, pl. IX/3; Németi 2009, pl. II/3 (palm bowl).
[180] Kovács 1975, pl. 1/3-3; pl. 2/18-2; pl. 22/235-3; pl. 25/265-2; Kemenczei 1984, pl. IV/2,
[181] Rusu 1981, 375-377.
[182] Florescu 1964, 191; Vasiliev 1983, 37-38; Vasiliev - Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 111-112; Andriţoiu–Vasiliev 1993, 134.
[183] Říhovský 1961, fig. 1/14, 2/5, 20/4; Říhovský 1963, fig. 1/4; 6/9, 16; 7/6, 10; 8/B1, E 12, 17-18; 9/B 14; 10/B 8; 11/A 4, C 7; 12/ B 3; 13/ C 2, 8; 14/24; 17/A 19; 18/C 10; 19/ A 2, C 11.
[184] Trogmayer 1963, pl. 81;13, 10.
[185] Kemenczei 1975, fig. 2/12.
[186] Vadász 1992, fig. 5/9, 11.

which are quite common in the Velatice culture[187]. A pot with barbotine covering is present in the Tiszacsege-Sóskás vessel deposition, which has been attributed to the pre-Gáva finds from the middle course of the Tisza River[188]. Also to be noted here is the graphite pottery, which seems to characterize mainly the early phase of the group[189], found in the Band, Miceşti, Bădeni and Oarda sites. A chronological mark could be the bronze pin with biconical decorated head found at Bădeni (pl. XVIII/7), which belongs rather to the so-called "Mohnkopfnadeln", that date from the late and middle phases of the Urn-Field Culture[190].

There are few finds which allow us to establish a connection with the Cehăluţ group. One is the lower part of a large, probably biconical pot with vertical "Kammstrich" decoration from the Cehăluţ site at Doh[191], a similar find being also known from the Zăuan–Banffy-tag site[192].

In the evolved phase of the Band-Cugir group, the small biconical pots decorated with grooves on the upper half make their appearance too[193], as well as jars with lobed rims (the lobes are ridged on the inside, as the ones from the Tumulus Culture), which are not far from the similar Gáva types, due to the striation patterns[194]. The two-handled biconical pots, with straight rim[195] belong to the early Urn-Field Culture repertoire[196] and have good parallels in the proto-Gáva horizon from the Tisza area[197] or in the Bobda II–Ticvaniul Mare–Karaburma III horizon from the Banat[198].

From the point of view of bronze metallurgy, the link between the Cincu-Suseni-type hoard from Cugir and the Band-Cugir type pottery enables us to date the group, or rather the final part of its evolution, to the Ha A1 period[199], i.e. contemporary to Pre/Proto-Gáva finds, as they were defined in Eastern Hungary[200]. The connection between the Band-Cugir group and Cincu-Suseni bronzes is also clearly showed by the hoards distribution during the Ha A1 period[201], when this type is almost absent in the South-East corner of Transylvania, an area still dominated by late Noua folks. Eastern elements could be detected in the Ha A1 bronze depositions from the Târnava Plateau, like the hoard from Cetatea de Baltă[202].

The late Band-Cugir elements took part to the birth of the Gáva culture in the Central and South Transylvanian area, together with the Susani elements that entered South-Western Transylvania from Banat. Finds such as the ones from Hunedoara[203] (pl. XI/1, 7) and Simeria[204] (pl. XI/2-6) point to an expansion of the Susani group over the Codru Moma Mountains, rather than through the Mureş River valley.

New excavations, as well as reconsideration of older finds have reveal the presence of an early Gáva phase (Ib according to our chronological system, see fig. 4) in

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[187] Říhovský 1963, fig. 2/A 10; 7/B 11; 12/ C 6; 13/D 9;
[188] Szabó 2004, fig. 4/4, 5/4.
[189] G. Rustoiu put forth the possibility of separating several stages of development within the Cugir -Band group (Rustoiu 2000, 168-169). In the present state of research, I prefer to invert the order of the sites, according to the probable chronological succession, and so to use the name Band - Cugir group.
[190] Kubach 1977, 381-385, pl. 63/937, 939; According to Novotná, this type belongs rather to the "Nadeln mit doppelkonischem, dickt gerilltem Kopf" cathegory (Novotná 1980, 134-135, pl. 40/875-877).
[191] Bejinariu–Lakó–Sana 2004, 115, pl. II/4.
[192] Bejinariu–Lakó–Sana 2004, 115, note 22.
[193] Ciugudean 1994, fig. 6/2.
[194] Ciugudean–Aldea 2005, 108; László 1994, 79, fig. 31; Pankau 2004, 59-60, fig. 8.
[195] Ciugudean 1994, fig. 6/3.
[196] Furmánek–Veliačik–Vladár 1991, 115, fig. 11.
[197] Szabó 2005, fig. 7/5. A sample from the wooden weaving which padded the well walls was dated to 1431-1250 B.C. (92,9%).
[198] Gumă 1993, 171-180, pl. 10/2; 24/1.
[199] Ciugudean–Aldea 2005, 111.
[200] Szabó 1996; idem 1999; idem 2004.
[201] Bratu 2009, 406, map 2.
[202] Rezi 2009.
[203] Luca 1999, pl. 4/5-6, 16; 5/6, 9-10; Sârbu et al. 2005, fig. 4/5.
[204] Basa 1970, fig. 4-6; Andriţoiu 1996.

Southern Transylvania[205], thus challenging the assumption that only the classical phase of the culture was present in this area[206]. The early habitation stage from the Alba Iulia–"Monolit-Recea" settlement[207] is marked by small pots with two handles placed below the rim and decorated with garlands of narrow grooves on the upper half (pl. XII/4), typical to the Bz D - Ha A period[208], as encountered in the Igriţa[209], Belegis II[210] and Susani groups[211]. The respective type is also to be found in the Moreşti site[212], but also in several Gáva settlements from Southern Transylvania, such as Sâncrăieni[213], Augustin[214], Porumbeni[215] or Chinari[216], which should be placed in the early Gáva phase too. Similar decorated pots are present in the cremation graves from Hódmezővásárhely-Ziegelei IV, near the point where the Mureş River flows into the Tisza[217] or in the Polgár M3/1 settlement[218]. However, this decoration pattern is absent in the Lăpuş II -Gáva I area, the find from Petea being considered by L. Marta as an import[219]. One fragment with both garlands and horizontal narrow grooves is present in the Şimleu Silvaniei–Brijigă site[220], which may points towards an early dating.

The presence of biconical urns decorated with horizontal grooves on their upper half in the settlements from Augustin (pl. XVI/4)[221], Porumbeni[222] and Chinari[223] is another argument for their earlier dating. Such kind of grooved necks are typical to the Lăpuş II - Gáva I (Gáva Ia in our chronological system, see fig. 4) horizon in North-Western Romania[224] and in the early Gáva settlements from Hungary[225]. Fragments of biconical pots with similar decorations have been found in the Ghidfalău[226] and Poian settlements[227] as well, which are difficult to assess on the basis of the few finds published. We also wish to distinguish here between the wide grooves that often cover the entire neck of the pot and the narrower and deeper grooves, with slight intervals, most common on the Igriţa[228] and Lăpuş II[229] pottery, and quite rare so far in Central and Southern Transylvania (e.g. Uioara de Jos[230], Şibot and Sebeş[231]).

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[205] Ciugudean 2009, 318, 332.
[206] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 117-118; Vasiliev 1995, 96.
[207] Lascu 2010, 17-19.
[208] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 80-81; Boroffka 1994a, 9-18.
[209] Chidioşan–Emödi 1982, fig. 3/2; Chidioşan–Emödi 1983, fig. 2/1, 3/2, 4/3. Emödi 1997, fig. 2/2, 9/26.
[210] Vasić 1995, fig. 7.
[211] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, pl. 6/9-10, 94.
[212] Horedt 1979, 33-34, fig. 8/16. I consider that the pottery attributed by the author to the late Bronze Age (Ha A-B) and which Fl. Gogâltan did not date (2001, 198), can most likely be assigned to the early Gáva culture (I).
[213] According to Székely 1994, pl. 4/3, the place of discovery is Tuşnad, but the pot was in fact found at Sâncrăieni, according to the information kindly offered to us by Méder Lorand (Muzeul Naţional Secuiesc Sf. Gheorghe).
[214] Ursuţiu 2006, pl. 20/8-9, 24/21.
[215] Nagy–Körösfői 2009, pl. 3/3.
[216] Rezi–Nagy 2009, pl. 19/100, 103.
[217] Szabó 1996, fig. 22/9-10.
[218] Szabó 2004, fig. 8/9.
[219] Marta 2009, 65, pl. 14/5.
[220] Sana 2006, 57, pl. 9/7.
[221] Costea et al. 2006, pl. 17/1; 18/4; 22/1, 4.
[222] Nagy–Körösfői 2009, pl. 3/2.
[223] Rezi–Nagy 2009, fig. 13/40
[224] See the finds from Lăpuş (Kacsó 2001, fig. 12-18, 21), Petea (Marta 2009, 62-64, pl. 17/1; 18/1, 7; 49/3), Berveni and Carei (Németi 1990, fig. 1/7, 14; 4/10; 6/2-3; 11/10; 12/7; 13/2).
[225] Kemenczei 1982, fig. 3/8; 4/1; 5/6; 101-2, 4-5; idem 1984, pl. 134/14, 18.
[226] Székely 1994, 174, pl. 4/1.
[227] Méder 2006, pl. 10/1-3.
[228] Chidioşan–Emödi 1983, fig. 2/1; 5/2, 8; Emödi 1997, fig.3.
[229] Kacsó 2001, fig. 19/a, 20.
[230] Ciugudean 1994, fig. 3/6. At the date when the finds from the respective site were published, I had assigned them to a distinct group related to late Igriţa finds (Ciugudean 1994, 72), a position that has been recently challenged (Gogâltan 2009, 118). They seem now closer to the late Band - Cugir/early Gáva finds.
[231] Popa 2008.

The classical kidney-shaped cups[232] are not present in the Gáva Ib phase, which is characterized by the low cups with an umbo on the bottom and a slight strangulation next to the high handle[233]. Another type is the cup covered in narrow vertical grooves on its body, found in the early Gáva level from Alba Iulia-Monolit[234]. The same site delivered a cup decorated with horizontal grooves on the neck and vertical ones on its shoulder and handle[235], with excellent parallels in the Susani group[236].

The two-handled biconical vessels have small tubular handles of Tumulus Culture tradition in the early Gáva (Ib) phase (pl. XVII/1-2), which develop in larger grooved handles by the end of the same phase or beginning of the next one (pl. XVII/3-4).

The "Kammstrich" decoration is predominant in the Gáva Ib phase of Central and Southern Transylvania, whereas both the "Besenstrich" and the "Kammstrich" techniques are still to be encountered in Lăpuş II - Gáva Ia finds from the North-West[237] (an obvious Suciu de Sus heritage[238]). The striations made by comb were inherited from the Band-Cugir group, as proven by their primarily vertical use in the early stage[239], which were then gradually replaced by wavy patterns.

The pottery with organized barbotine also comes from the Band-Cugir group; it lacks in the Lăpuş II-Gáva Ia finds[240] or in the Grăniceşti group[241], but it is present in Gáva Ib sites from Southern Transylvania, such as the ones from Alba Iulia–Monolit (pl XII/5), Chinari[242], Iernut - Gorotar[243] and Meşcreac[244]. The absence of the barbotine both in Teleac and Mediaş settlements could be an argument for a later chronological position. The pottery with organized barbotine is rarely encountered in the Gáva sites from Hungary: Baks-Temetőpart, Hódmezővásárhely-Gorzsa or Hódmezővásárhely-Szakálhát)[245].

We can therefore conclude that an early phase (Ib) of the Gáva culture, with obvious regional characteristics, is documented in Central and Southern Transylvania in the settlements from Alba Iulia–Monolit, Meşcreac, Iernut "Gorotar", Moreşti, Chinari, Sâncrăieni, Augustin, Porumbeni, and probably Ghidfalău (fig. 3). The Teleac Ia stage, as it was more recently defined, may belong to the same phase[246]. From a chronological point of view, the early Gáva phase in Southern Transylvania (Gáva Ib) covers probably the first half of the 11th century BC, partially contemporary to the Susani group[247] and immediately after the Lăpuş II-Gáva Ia horizon in North-Western Romania[248]. Several bronze fibula may be connected to this phase, the earliest one being the "Blattbügelfibel" from Augustin (pl.XVIII/11), followed by the one from Teleac (pl. XVIII/12)[249]. The "Drahtbügelfibel" found in Porumbenii Mari (pl. XVIII/13) belongs to the Unterradl type[250] and have to be dated

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[232] Type Ciugudean VIc (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 88-89, fig. 39), respectively type V, variants 1 and 2a according to Pankau (2004, 64-67, fig. 9).

[233] Type VIe at Teleac (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 90, fig. 38/18-19, 21-22, 23-24), respectively type V, variant 2b acc. to Pankau (2004, 65-66, fig.9).

[234] Ciugudean 2009, 318, pl. 8/1-2.

[235] Ciugudean 2009, 318, pl. 8/6

[236] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, pl. 4/5.

[237] Marta 2009, 79 and typological plate 7/EA-ED.

[238] Kacsó 1975, 51, fig. 9/1-4; idem 2005, fig. 5/4-9, 6/1-11; Marta 2009, 38 and typological plate 3/EA-ED.

[239] Ciugudean 2009, pl. I/1; Popescu 1925, pl. I/3.

[240] Marta 2009, 76-83 and typological fig. 7.

[241] László 1994, 85-89.

[242] Rezi-Nagy 2009, 100, fig. 21/127-128.

[243] Vlassa 1970, 175, fig. 8.

[244] Ciugudean 1979, 68-71, fig. 6/1-4.

[245] Szabó 1996, fig. 21/3-4; 28/5; 38/7.

[246] Ciugudean 2009, 318.

[247] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, 56-58; Gumă 1993, 169-170; Vulpe 1995a, 83-86.

[248] Kacsó 1990, 49; Marta 2009, 102.

[249] Both of them were dated far too late by the authors (see Ursuțiu 2006, 159; Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 66) This type of fibula is usually dated to Ha A1 time (Bader 1983, 35; Říhovský 1993, 51-52; Vasić 1999, 21).

[250] Marta 2003.

already in Ha A2 period[251]. Richly decorated pins with biconical head (pl. XVIII/8) or "Keulenkopfnadeln" (pl. XVIII/7) came to light in the Augustin site[252], considerably different to the plain ones found in the Ha B time levels from Teleac[253]. The Gáva Ib phase is contemporary with the Gyermely (Mozsolics)–Turia-Jupalnic (Rusu–Petrescu-Dîmboviţa) type of hoards, respectively with DFS III, according to the new dating for the Transylvanian Basin put forth by Chr. Pare and C. Metzner-Nebelsick[254] (fig. 4).

The Gáva II phase contains the classical elements of the culture, as shown by the finds from Teleac (Ib)[255], Mediaş (phase I)[256], Lechinţa de Mureş[257], Bogata-Ranta[258], Tilişca[259], Reci or Cernatu[260], to name but a few of the representative sites. Most Transylvanian fortifications are built at this stage[261], and the Teleac hillfort offered good stratigraphic evidences that the first phase of the earthen wall covered an earlier habitation level (Ib) represented by the pit-house 6 (pl. XIII-XV)[262]. The pottery is characterized by the rise of bowls decorated inside by radial grooves[263], or sometime by concentric ones around umbo-type plastic ornaments (pl. XV/9). The horn-type round grooved protuberances are still present in the beginning of Gáva II phase (pl. XIV/4-5), but smaller conical knobs, sometimes pushed from the inside become more frequent (pl. XIII/2, XIV/1, 6). The grooved garlands on the upper half of the vessels disappear, together with the organized barbotine covering. The vertical comb-made lines are replaced by wavy patterns, made in the same "Kammstrich" technique[264]. The classical kidney-shaped cups develops now from the older type (pl. XV/6), while the number of multi-levelled vessels is visible higher than in the previous phase[265]. Pins of "Vasenkopfnadeln" type were not only used but also produced in the Teleac Ib phase (pl. XVIII/16, 17)[266]. Fibula belonging to the "Drahtbügelfibeln" type were still in use during the Gáva II phase, as the ones from Augustin (pl. XVIII/14) and Cernatu (pl. XVIII/20) clearly demonstrate. The Augustin fibula, as well as the one from Bădeni[267], have perfect parallels in the Kalakača site, dated to Ha B1-B2 period[268].

The hoard found in the Ciceu-Corabia hillfort[269] clearly links the Gáva II phase with the Hajdúböszörmeny (Mozsolics)–Moigrad–Tăuteu (Rusu–Petrescu-Dîmboviţa) type of bronze hoards, respectively with DFS IV (Pare–Metzner-Nebelsick). From a chronological point of view, Gáva II phase roughly covers the Ha B1 period (fig. 4), which could be dated in the second half of the 11th century BC and most of the 10th century BC[270].

The late phase (III) of the Gáva culture lasted in the Southern half of Transylvania until the end of the Ha B3. This long evolution could be divided in two shorter sub-phases (Gáva IIIa –IIIb), according to the stratigraphical sequence from Teleac. The Gáva IIIa sub-

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[251] Bader 1983, 21.
[252] Ursuţiu 2006, 158, pl. XXXII.
[253] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 64-65, fig. 18/1-4, 11-22.
[254] Pare 1999, 422, table 7; Metzner-Nebelsick 2002, 62-67, fig. 17; idem 2005.
[255] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 98-99, 118-119, fig. 30/4-13; Ciugudean 2009, 318-319, pl. 2 -3, 5.
[256] Pankau 2004.
[257] Popescu 1925, pl. 1/4-12; pl. 2/7-13, 16-17; fig. 3
[258] Berciu D - I 1945, 14-17, fig. 13-16.
[259] Lupu 1989.
[260] Székely 1966.
[261] Vasiliev 1995.
[262] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 25-26, pl. 2.
[263] A typical Gáva II assemblage of pottery belonging to Teleac Ib phase has been recently published (Ciugudean 2009, pl. 2-3).
[264] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 93-94, fig. 30/13; 31/15; 33/15; 36/7, 11; 45/10, 12, 15; Pankau 2004, 81 and Typentafel 6.
[265] This type is already present in the Gáva Ib phase, as the new finds from Porumbenii Mari clearly demonstrated (Nagy–Körösfői 2009, pl. 3/3).
[266] Vasiliev –Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 64, fig. 18/5-7, 24/2; Ciugudean 2009, pl. 4/4, 10/1a.
[267] Bader 1983, pl. 2/8.
[268] Medović 1988, 425-426, fig. 188/1, pl. 24/1-1a.
[269] Marinescu 1979.
[270] According to Central European dendrodata for the Late Bronze Age (see Rychner 1995; David-Elbiali–Dunning 2004).

phase corresponds to the Teleac II level, where Gornea–Kalakača incised pottery had been found[271]. The Gáva IIIb sub-phase could be related with the Teleac IIIa level, several Pre-Scythian bronze and bone arrowheads[272], as well as an iron dagger of Eastern (Caucasian) type supporting the dating of Gáva IIIb phase mainly in the second part of Ha B3[273]. The existence of a late Gáva phase that reached the end of the Ha B3 has been put also forth for Moldavia and Sub-Carpathian Ukraine[274], as well as Slovakia[275], and more recently Hungary[276].

The socketed axe mould related to the second stage of the earthen wall from Teleac belongs to the Fizeşu Gherlii II–Sângiorgiu de Pădure type[277] and consequently the Gáva III phase should be contemporary with the Románd (Mozsolics)–Fizeşu Gherlii II (Rusu–Petrescu-Dîmboviţa) type hoards, respectively with DFS V (Pare - C. Metzner-Nebelsick) (fig. 4).

Mezőcsát influences that have modified the evolution of the Gáva culture in the Carpathian Basin[278] could be detected in the Northern half of the Transylvania, as proven by the grave with contracted skeleton and with meat offering from Vlaha[279], while stamped pottery of Insula Banului/Babadag II type found in the Gáva III sites from Southern Transylvania[280] shows significant connections with the Lower Danube valley.

The Basarabi stamped pottery found in the Teleac IIIa level have to be linked with the expansion of the early Basarabi groups from Banat along the lower and middle Mureş valley. This event determined the abandoning of most of the hillforts and the gradual extinction of the individual characteristics of the late Gáva communities. They did not disappear therefore due to the violent arrival of the Scythians, as it was long assumed[281], but through an acculturation process, as they came in contact with the Basarabi culture[282]. The area located south of the Târnava Mare River and especially South-Eastern Transylvania did not undergo however the same changes, as Gáva communities may have survived here as late as the beginning of middle Hallsttat period. An argument to support this hypothesis is the bronze socketed arrow with a lateral spike found in a complex with grooved pottery at Sighişoara–Dealul Viilor[283], which cannot pre-date the end of the 8th century BC, or rather the 7th century BC. Similar arrowheads have been found in the fortified settlement from Şeica Mică[284] and in the Basarabi settlements of Gligoreşti and Bernadea[285]. The pottery discovered in the habitation level from Sighişoara–Dealul Viilor (area T1-B), where the arrowhead was unearthed, has clear Gáva features[286], but also possible Basarabi influences[287]. Nonetheless, the

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[271] For the Gornea–Kalakača pottery found in Teleac see Ciugudean 2009, 319, pl. 4/1, 5/4.

[272] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 55-58, fig. 17/1, 6-7, 11; Ciugudean 2009, pl. 4/5-6.

[273] Whereas V. Vasiliev has constantly supported the latest possible dating of the respective artefacts (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 120-125), I have put forth earlier dates (Ciugudean–Aldea 2005, 110-111; Ciugudean 2009, 319-320, 331).

[274] László 1994, 92.

[275] Paulík 1968, 41; Furmánek–Veliačik–Vladár 1991, 152.

[276] Szábó 2009, 290, nota 52.

[277] Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, fig. 23/8-9; for the reconstruction of the mould and the correlation with Teleac III phase see Ciugudean 2009, 318-319, pl. 10/2-2a.

[278] László 1999. This fact might explain some similarities between the pottery from the Teleac II-III levels and the one of the Mezőcsát culture (Pare 1999, 420-421).

[279] Gogâltan–Apai–Kelemen 2008.

[280] Stamped pottery of Insula Banului/Babadag II type was published from Cuci (Berciu D - I 1945, 21), Tilişca (Lupu 1989, pl. 4/2, 7; 5/4), Porumbenii Mari (Székely 1966, pl. V/1), Braşov (Alexandrescu–Pop 1970, fig. 5/4), Teleac (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, fig. 44/15) and Augustin (Costea et al. 2006, pl. 3/9 (together with Wietenberg pottery !); 30/6).

[281] Vasiliev 1980, 126-128; Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991,122-125; Vasiliev 1995, 154-155.

[282] Ciugudean 1997, 157-161; idem 2009, 331; Ursuţiu 2002, 27.

[283] Boroffka N–R 2006, 587-589, fig. 1084/7 (the authors support the earliest dating, i.e. the 8th century B.C.).

[284] Horedt 1964, 194, fig.4/3.

[285] Ursuţiu 2002, pl. 131/2-3.

[286] Boroffka N–R 2006, fig. 1081/2-6, 8-9; 1083/6-10.

[287] Boroffka N–R 2006, fig. 1082/1, 3-5; 1083/3. The late bowl shapes are to be noted here, due to their rims which were thickened and flattened to the outside (fig. 1082/3-4).

stratigraphy does not undoubtedly prove their coexistence, and the survival of some Gáva communities in Southern Transylvania until Ha C remains therefore but a working hypothesis

The two dating systems put forth by C. Kacsó[288] and more recently Fl. Gogâltan[289] for the Transylvanian Late Bronze did not reach a common ground on the inclusion of the Gáva culture. C. Kacsó proposed a four-stage system (Late Bronze 1-4) that includes the Ha B1 period as well[290], similar thus to the one proposed by T. Kemenczei for Hungary[291]. Fl. Gogâltan, however, promotes a three-stage system (Late Bronze I-III), by excluding the Gáva culture finds, which he dates to the Iron Age[292], according to the traditional system of the Romanian archaeology[293].

The excavations made at Teleac have proven that the iron finds are missing from the earliest level (I), as they occasionally appear at level II and then considerably multiply in the last phase of the settlement[294]. We can therefore draw the conclusion that most of the evolution of the Gáva culture was not determined by the large-scale production or usage of iron artefacts, while the bronze production continued, as proven by the stone moulds, the crucibles and tuyères/clay nozzles found in settlements[295]. On account of all this, I believe that the final part of the late Bronze Age in Transylvania should also include this culture[296], which has already been attributed to the Bronze Age in Hungary[297] and Slovakia[298].

In conclusion, a four-phase system (fig. 4) looks more suitable to make the correlations with the Central European chronology of the Late Bronze Age, as well as with the new typology of the bronze hoards from the Carpathian Basin

The **Late Bronze I** is represented by the last phase of the Wietenberg culture in Western Transylvania and the penetration of the Noua I groups in the Southern part, while Suciu de Sus II and early Cehăluţ phase covers the North and North–West.

The **Late Bronze II** is the time of major expansion of the Noua culture (phase II) over Central and South-Western Transylvania, while late Cehăluţ and Igriţa groups evolve in the West and Lăpuş group start its development in the Northern area. Probably late Balta Sărată and Igriţa mixed groups are present in a quite limited area from the South–West (mainly the Haţeg region, with intrusions towards Hunedoara and Deva). By the end of this phase, the early elements of the Band-Cugir group probably penetrated from the North-West and reach the middle Mureş valley.

The **Late Bronze III** is divided in two sub-phases, according to the evolution of the early Gáva phase. **Late Bronze IIIa** is represented by the Band-Cugir group in the West and the late Noua (phase III) in the South-East, while Lăpuş II group develops common features with the earliest Gáva (Ia) groups from the North-West. A limited penetration of the Susani group could be detected in South-Western Transylvania. **Late Bronze IIIb** represents the time of the early Gáva (phase Ib) expansion over the Central and Southern Transylvania, up to Southern Carpathians.

The **Late Bronze IV** is the period when the Gáva culture reaches its classical shape (phase II), covering the whole Transylvanian area.

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[288] Kacsó 1990.
[289] Gogâltan 2001,196-199.
[290] Kacsó 1990.
[291] Kemenczei 1984, 96.
[292] Gogâltan 2001, 199; idem 2005, 376; idem 2009, 122.
[293] Vulpe 1990, 102-104; László 2001, 294 -299 (with the older literature).
[294] Vasiliev - Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 126. With regards to the iron finds initially assigned to level III, I would like to stress the fact that most of them actually belong to level IIIb, represented by the post-Gáva settlement and the Basarabi culture respectively (Ciugudean 2009, 331).
[295] Teleac (Vasiliev - Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, 48-49, fig. 23/2-10, 24/2, 40/12-13, 15-16; Ciugudean 2009, 316, 318-319, pl. 4/2, 7, 5/2, 10/1-2); Alba Iulia–Recea-Monolit (Lascu 2006, 15-16, nr. 40-41).
[296] K. Horedt (1967, 150-152), T. Bader (1978, 77-80) and C. Kacsó (1990, 49) were the main Romanian archaeologists which supported the inclusion of the Gáva culture in the Late Bronze Age .
[297] Kemenczei 1984, 58-86.
[298] Furmánek-Veliačik-Vladár 1991, 149-153.

The last phase (III) of the Gáva culture is seen as a **Transition from the Late Bronze to the Early Iron Age,** as long as the iron tools and weapons become frequent and the bimetallic (iron + bronze) hoards represent a new type of depositional practice. However, the settlement pattern does not change, the hillforts are still used and the types of bronze objects are still related to the Late Bronze Age shapes. Most of the Transylvanian region is still occupied by the late Gáva folks, although Mezőcsát groups could be quite active in the North-West, while the early Basarabi elements penetrate in the South-West, along the lower Mureş valley.

Our system is similar in length to the ones proposed by T. Kemenczei and C. Kacsó but differs in the number of subdivisions and particularly in their content. The proposed chronology for the Gáva culture is considerably longer than the one supported by C. Kacsó and Fl. Gogâltan in their systems. New research will probably change more in the chronological frames and correlations but less in the cultural sequence proposed here.

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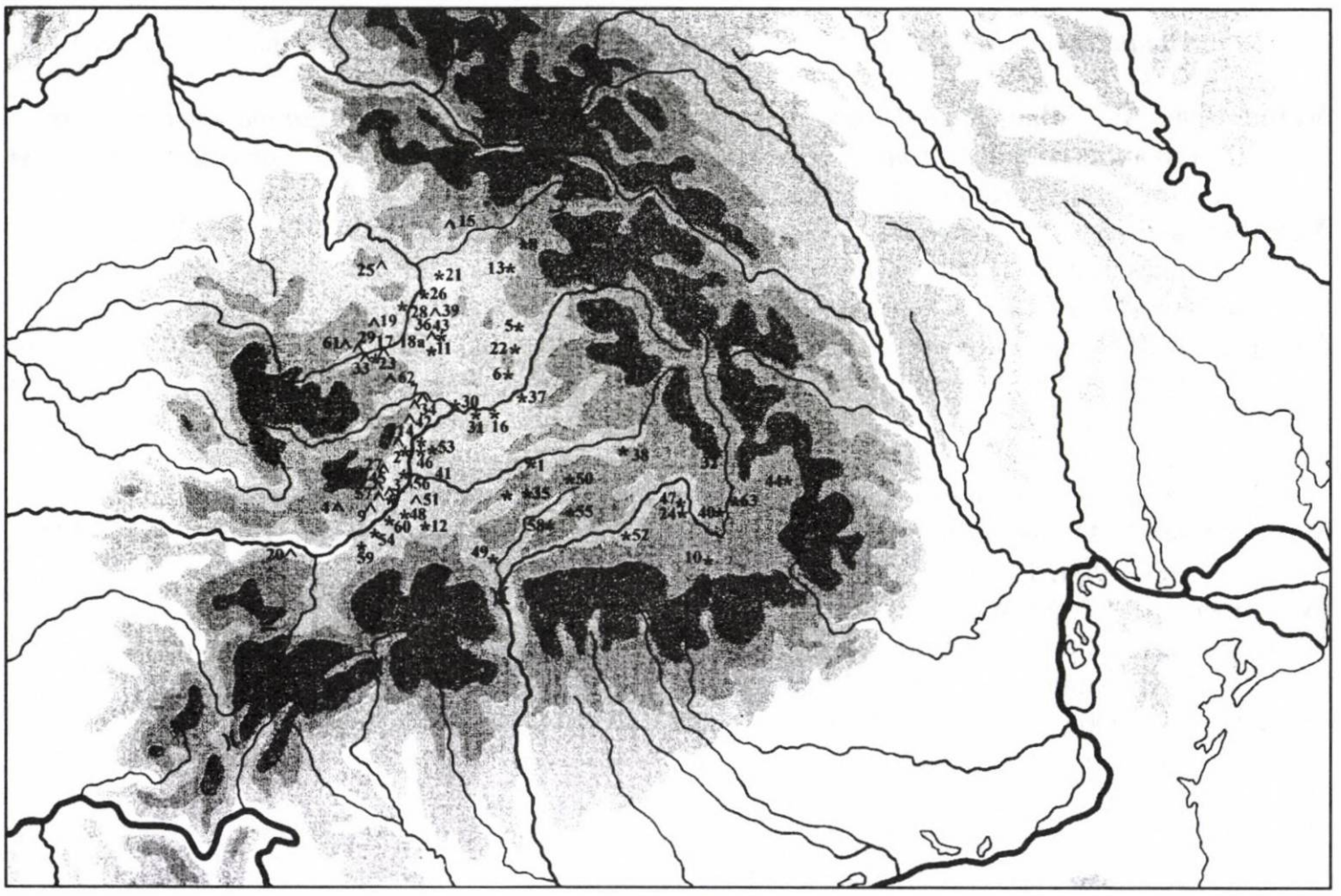


Fig. 1. Map with the distribution of late Wietenberg (^) and Noua (*) sites: 1.Adămuş; 2. Aiud; 3. Alba Iulia; 4. Ardeu 5. Archiud; 6. Band; 7. Bădeni; 8. Bistriţa; 9. Blandiana;10. Braşov; 11. Buza; 12. Câlnic; 13. Chintelnic; 14. Cicău; 15. Ciceu–Corabia; 16. Cipău; 17. Cluj–Becaş; 18. Cluj-Napoca–Mânăştur; 18a. Cluj-Napoca–Str. Banatului;19. Deuş; 20. Deva; 21. Diviciorii Mari; 22. Fânaţe; 23. Floreşti–Polus; 24. Feldioara; 25. Gârbău; 26. Geaca; 27. Geoagiu de Sus; 28. Gherla; 29. Gilău; 30. Gligoreşti; 31. Iernut; 32. Jigodin; 33. Luna de Sus; 34. Măhăceni; 35. Mediaş; 36. Mintiu Gherlii; 37. Moreşti; 38. Nicoleni; 39. Nicula; 40. Olteni (Sf. Gheorghe); 41. Obreja; 42. Ormeniş; 43. Pălatca; 44. Peteni; 45. Piatra Craivii; 46. Rădeşti; 47. Rotbav; 48. Sebeş; 49. Sibiu; 50. Sighişoara; 51. Straja; 52. Şercaia; 53. Şoimuş; 54. Tărtăria; 55. Târnava; 56. Teiuş; 57. Ţelna; 58. Ţichindeal; 59. Vinerea; 60. Vinţu de Jos; 61. Viştea; 62. Vlaha; 63. Zoltan.

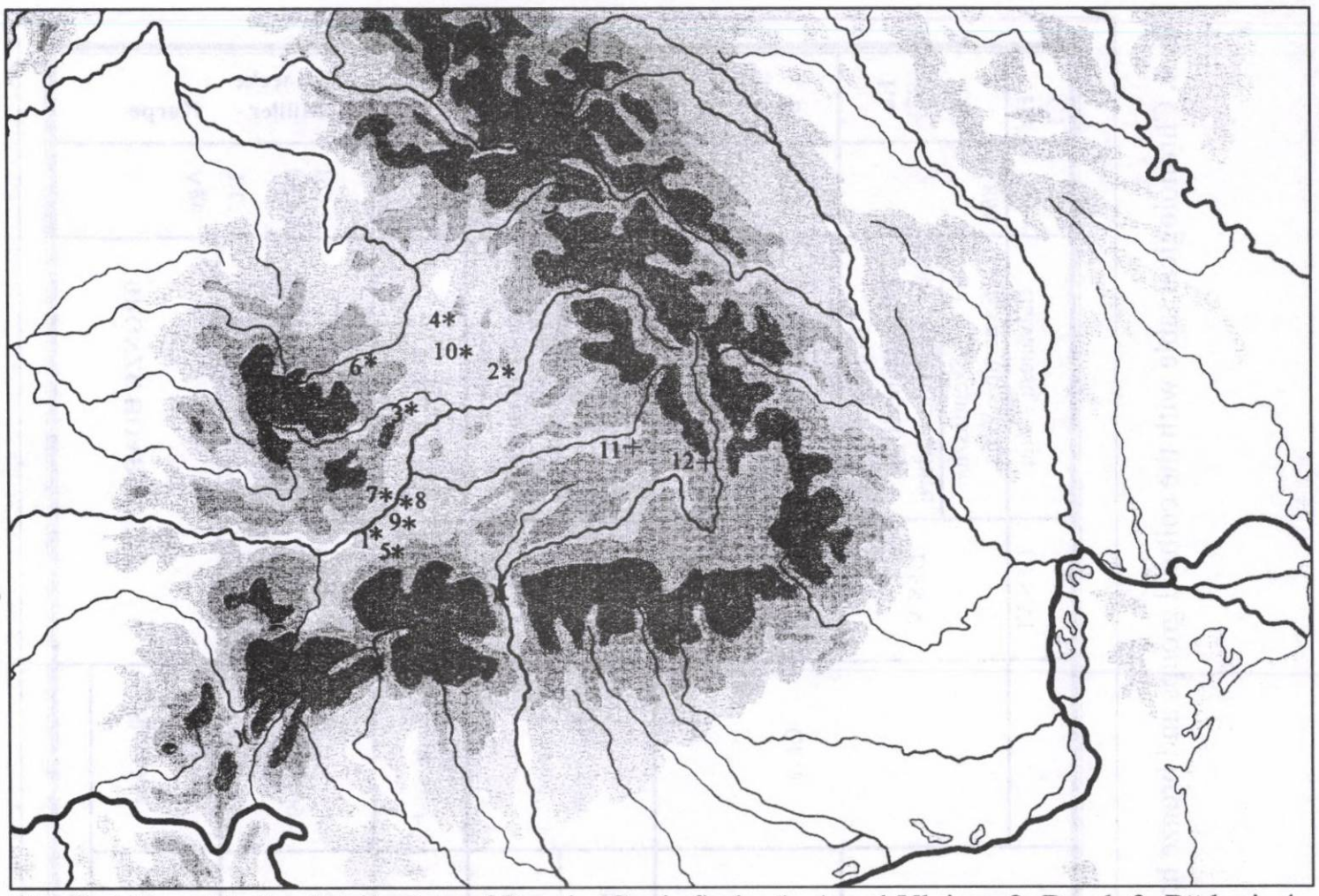


Fig. 2. Map with the distribution of Band - Cugir finds: 1. Aurel Vlaicu; 2. Band; 3. Bădeni; 4. Buza; 5. Cugir; 6. Floreşti - Polus; 7. Miceşti - Cigaşe; 8. Oarda de Jos; 9. Pianu de Jos; 10. Vişinelu;11. Nicoleni (within a Noua context?); 12. Jigodin (within a Noua cemetery).

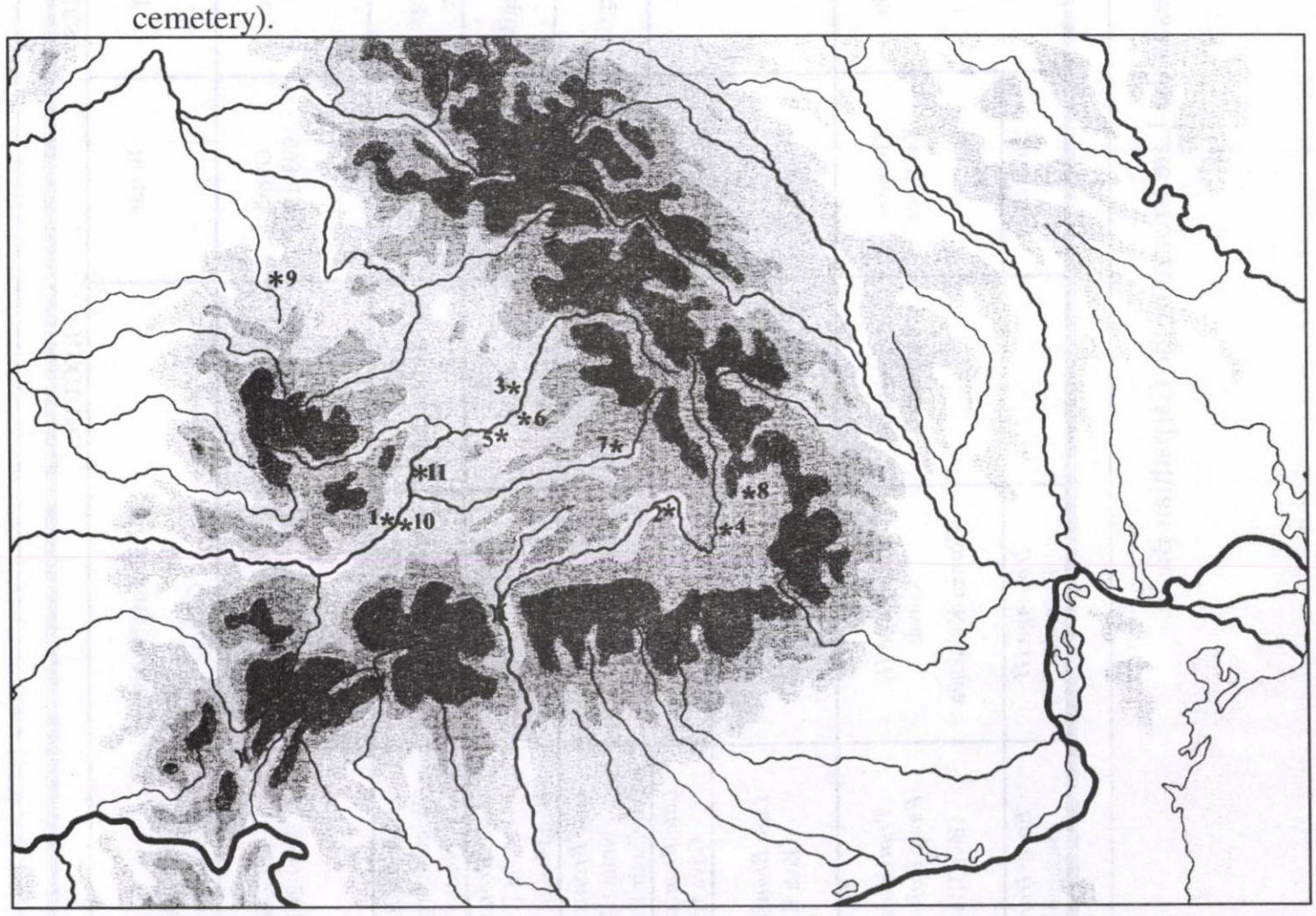
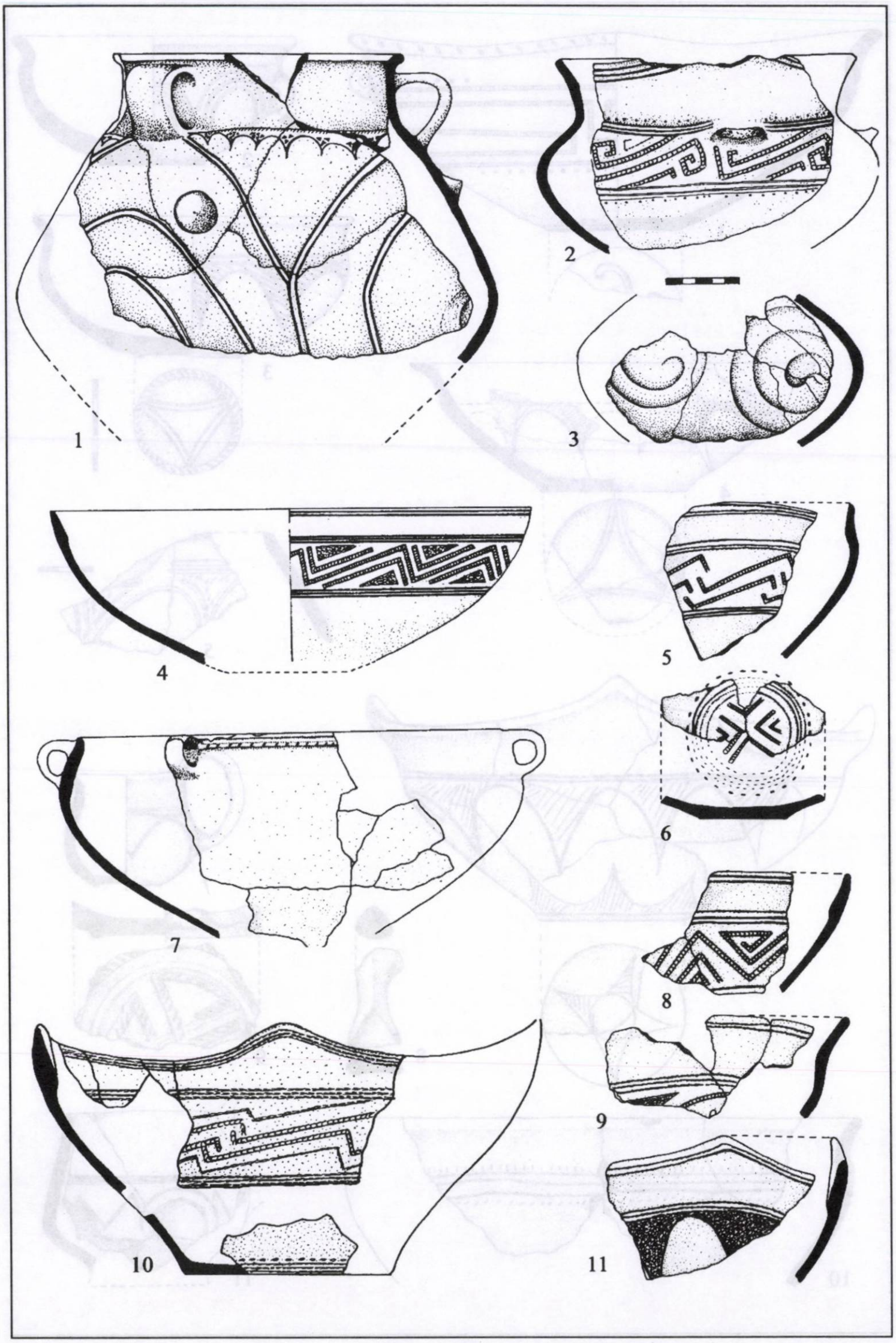


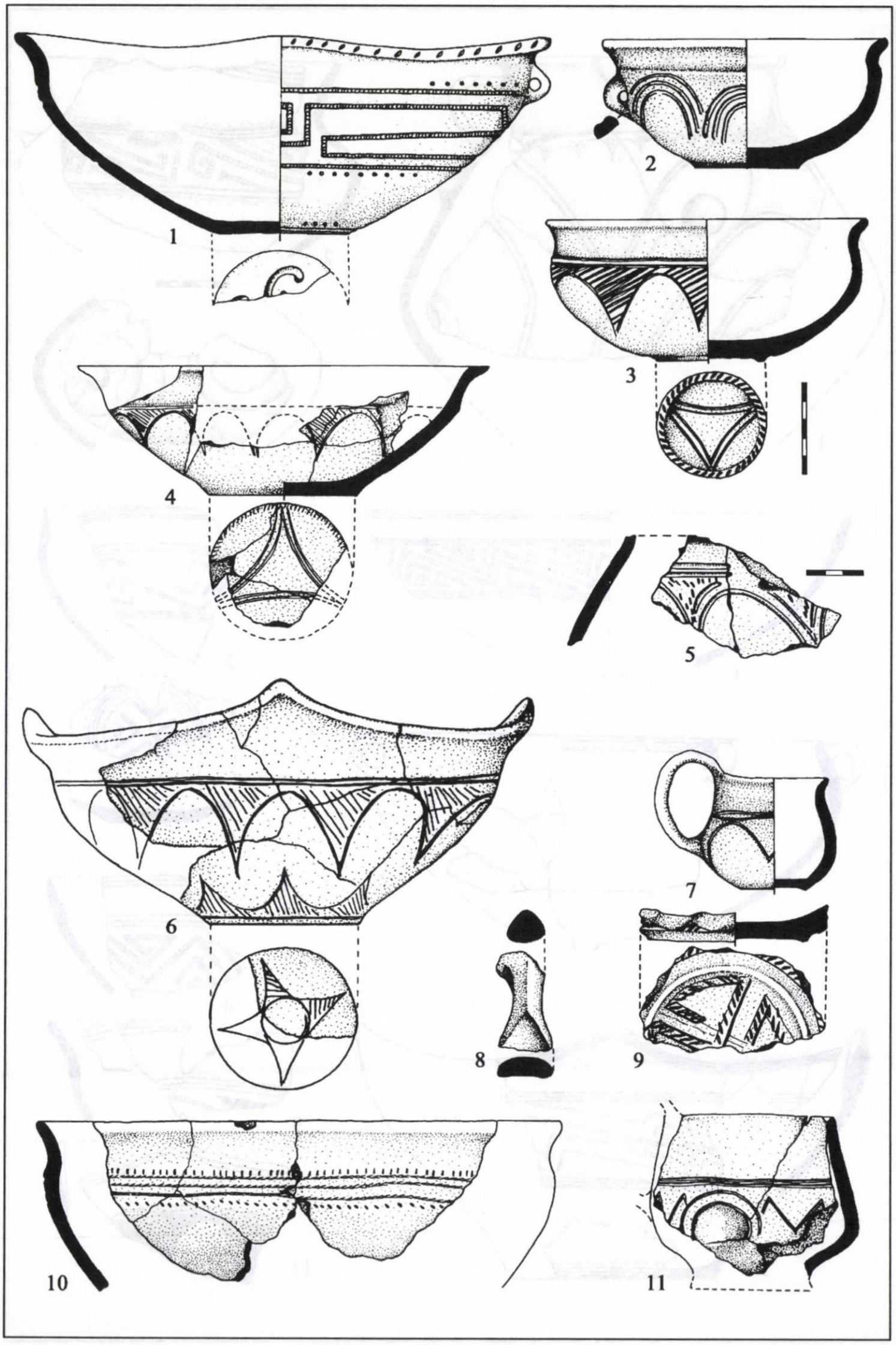
Fig. 3. Map with early Gáva settlements (phase I): 1. Alba Iulia - Recea-Monolit; 2. Augustin; 3. Chinari; 4. Ghidfalău; 5. Iernut–Gorotar; 6. Moreşti–Hulă; 7. Porumbenii Mari; 8. Sâncrâieni; 9. Şimleu Silvaniei - Brijigă; 10. Teleac; 11. Meşcreac.

Reinecke Müller - Karpe	Age BC Pare 1999	BRONZE HOARDS		COUNTRIES / REGIONS					
				Slovakia	Hungary	Banat	Transylvania North-Western	Transylvania Central	Transylvania Central and Southern
		Mozsolics/ Petrescu-Dîmboviţa	Pare/ Metzner-Nebelsik	Furmánek - Véliačik 1991	Kemenczei 1984	Gumă 1993-1996	Kacsó 1990	Gogâltan 2001-2009	Ciugudean 2009-2010
Bz C	*1300*	Forró		Suciu de Sus/ Piliny	***LB 1*** Hajdúbagos/ Felsőszőcs	Cruceni-Belegiš I/ Balta Sărată	***LB 1*** Cehăluţ/Suciu de Sus II	***Late Bronze I*** Wietenberg IV/ Noua	***Late Bronze I*** Wietenberg IV/ Noua I
Bz D	*1200*	Ópályi/ Uriu - Domăneşti	DFS I	Velatice/ Čaka/Gáva	***LB 2a*** Pécska-Belegiš/ Csorva	Cruceni-Belegiš II/Igriţa	***LB 2*** Cehăluţ/ Lăpuş I	***Late Bronze II*** Gligoreşti (late Wietenberg + Noua)	***Late Bronze II*** Noua II / Band-Cugir I (?)
Ha A1	*1100*	Kurd/ Cincu - Suseni	DFS II		***LB 2b*** Pécska-Belegiš/ Gáva I	Susani/Bobda/ Hinova /Mala Vrbica	***LB 3*** Lăpuş II/Gáva Ia	***Late Bronze III*** Band-Cugir	***Late Bronze IIIa*** Noua III/ Band-Cugir II/Susani
Ha A2		Gyermely/ Turia - Jupalnic	DFS III	Gáva					***Late Bronze IIIb*** Gáva Ib
Ha B1	*1060* *950/ 920*	Hajdúbözsörmény/ Moigrad - Tăuteu	DFS IV		***LB 3*** Gáva II	Gáva	***LB 4*** Gáva II	***Iron Age I*** Gáva	***Late Bronze IV*** Gáva II
Ha (B2)-B3	*800*	Románd/ Fizeşu Gherlii II-Sângiorgiu de Pădure / Bükk – Szentlászló/ Şomartin - Vetiş	DFS V		präskytische Kultur (Mezőcsát)	Gornea-Kalakača	Preskythian Horizon ?	***Iron Age II*** Gáva/ Gornea-Kalakača	***Transition to Early Iron Age*** Gáva IIIa-b
Ha C1		Bâlvăneşti - Vinţ	DFS VI			Basarabi		***Iron Age III*** Basarabi	***Early Iron I*** Basarabi

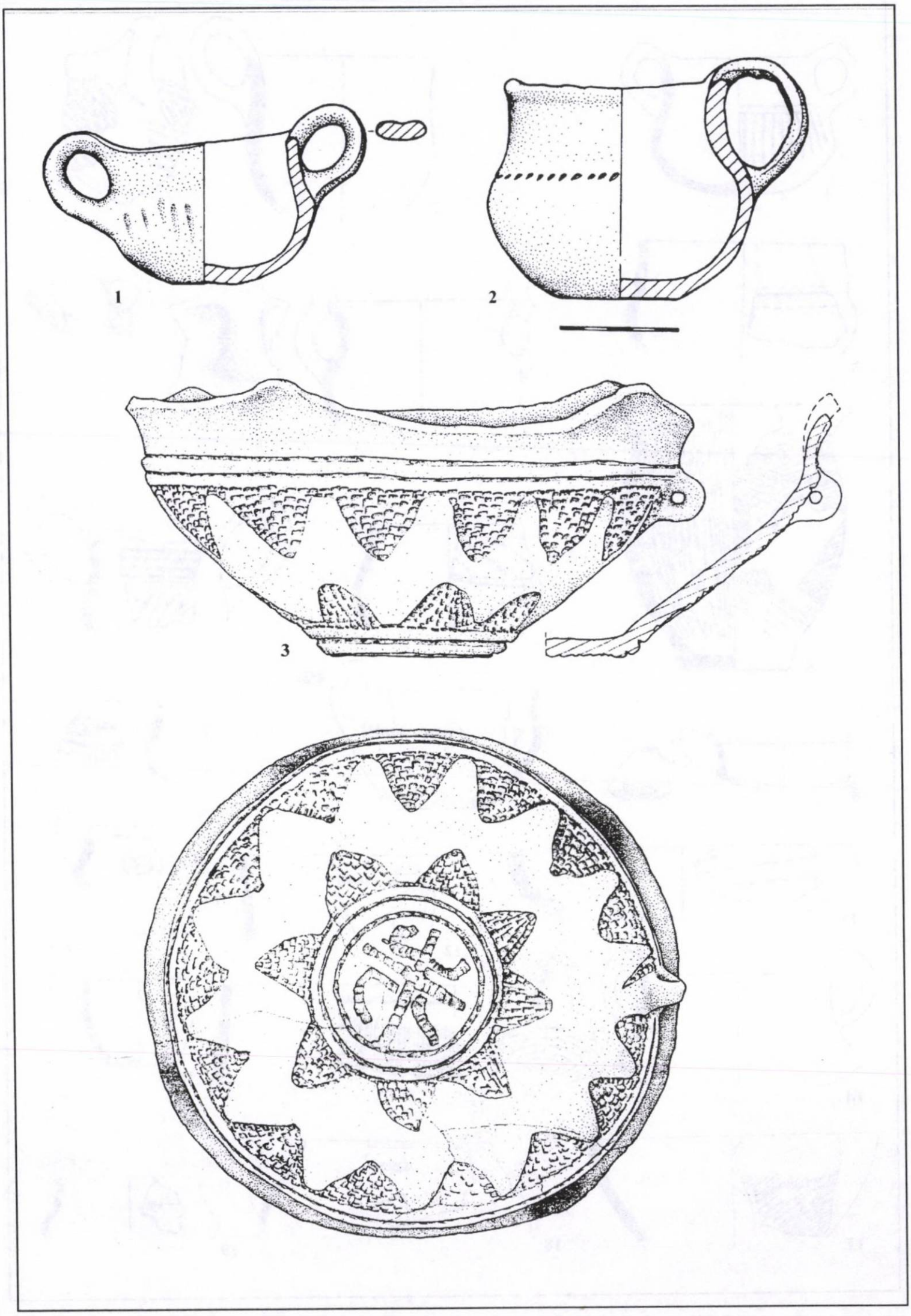
Fig. 4. Chronological table with the cultural groups and bronze hoards types in the Late Bronze of the Carpathian Basin.



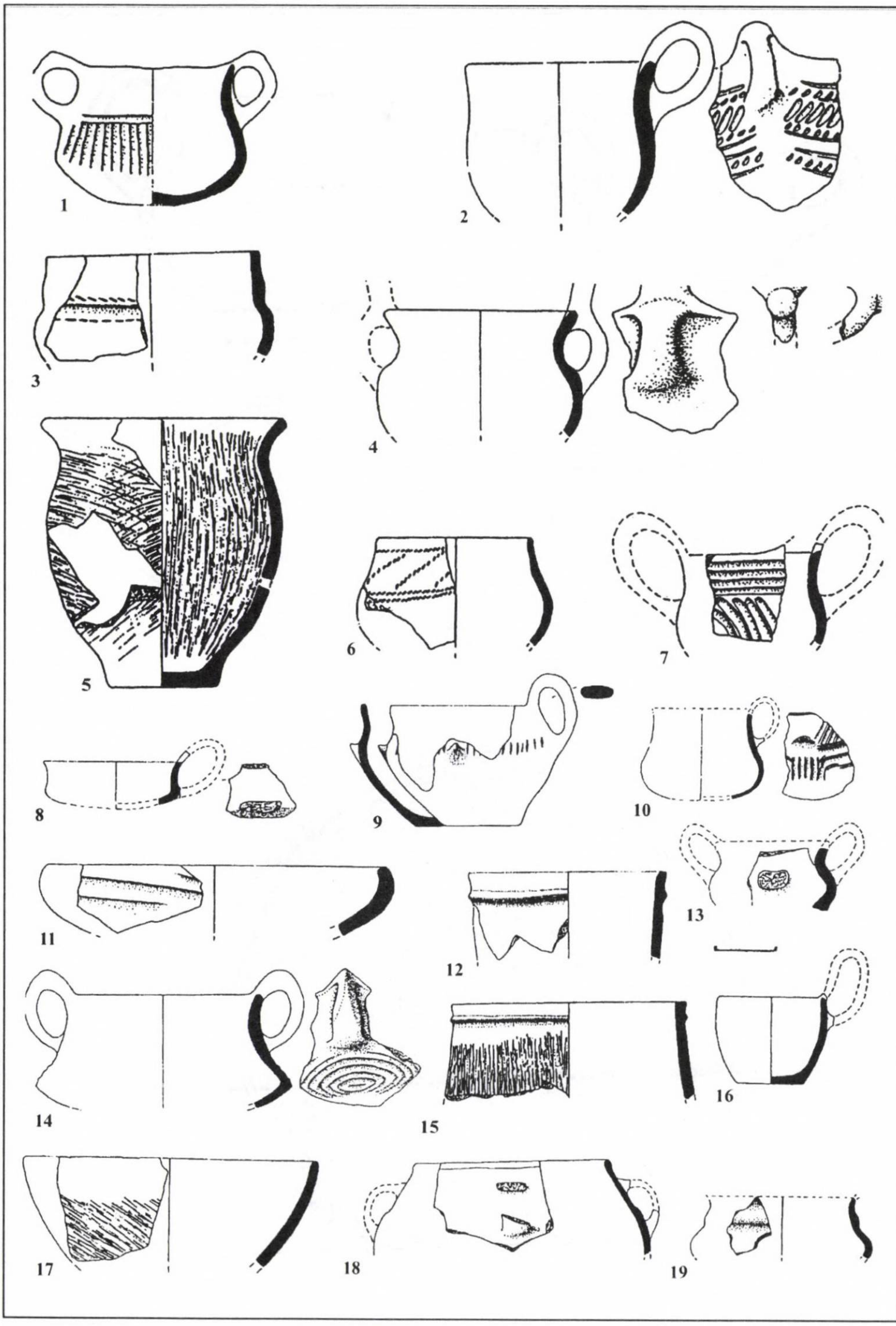
Pl. I. Late Bronze Age Ia: pottery from the Geoagiu de Sus ritual pit (1-11).



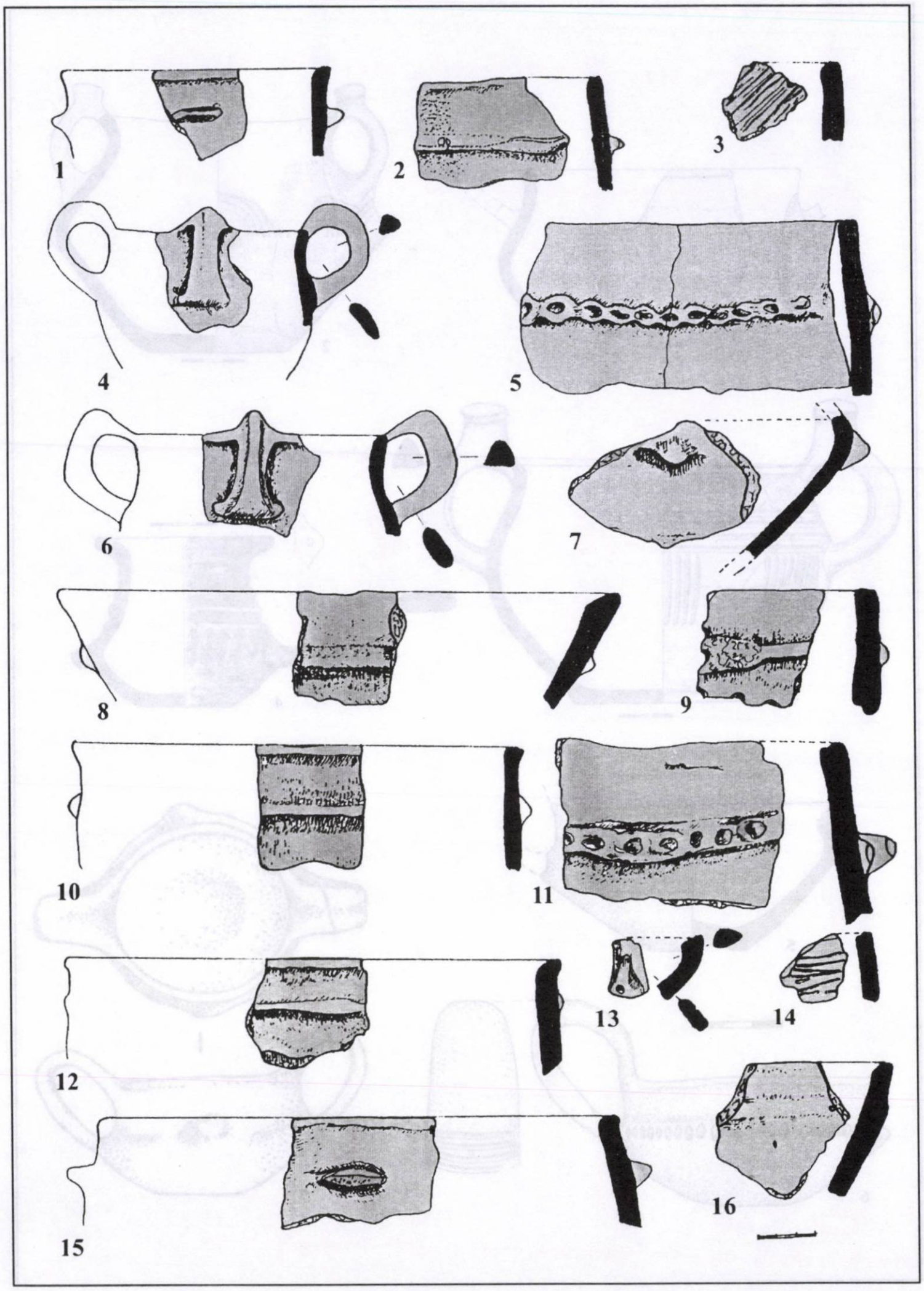
Pl. II. Late Bronze Age Ia: pottery from the Măhăceni ritual pit (1-11).



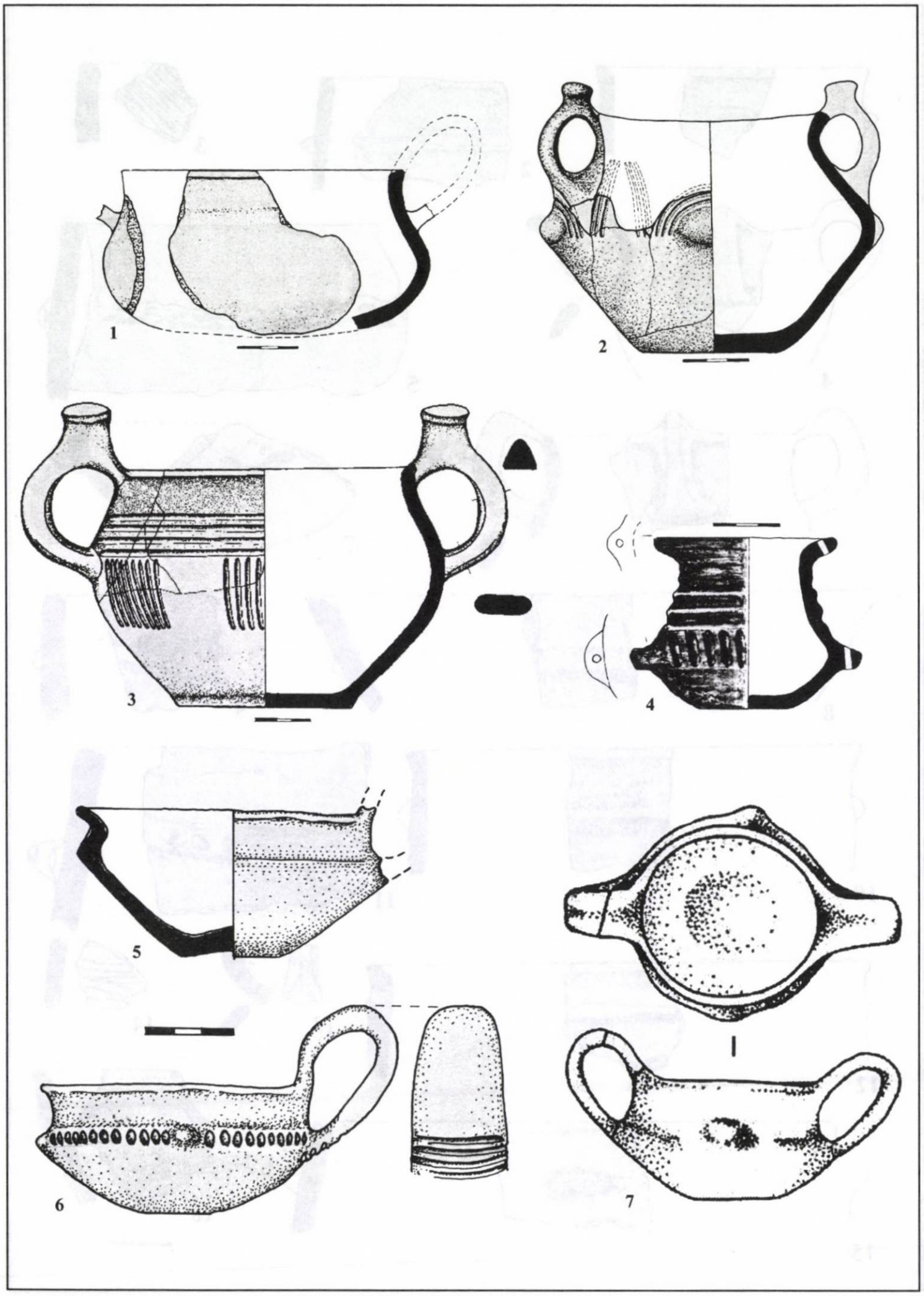
Pl. III. Late Bronze Age Ia: pottery from the Band cremation graves (1-3).



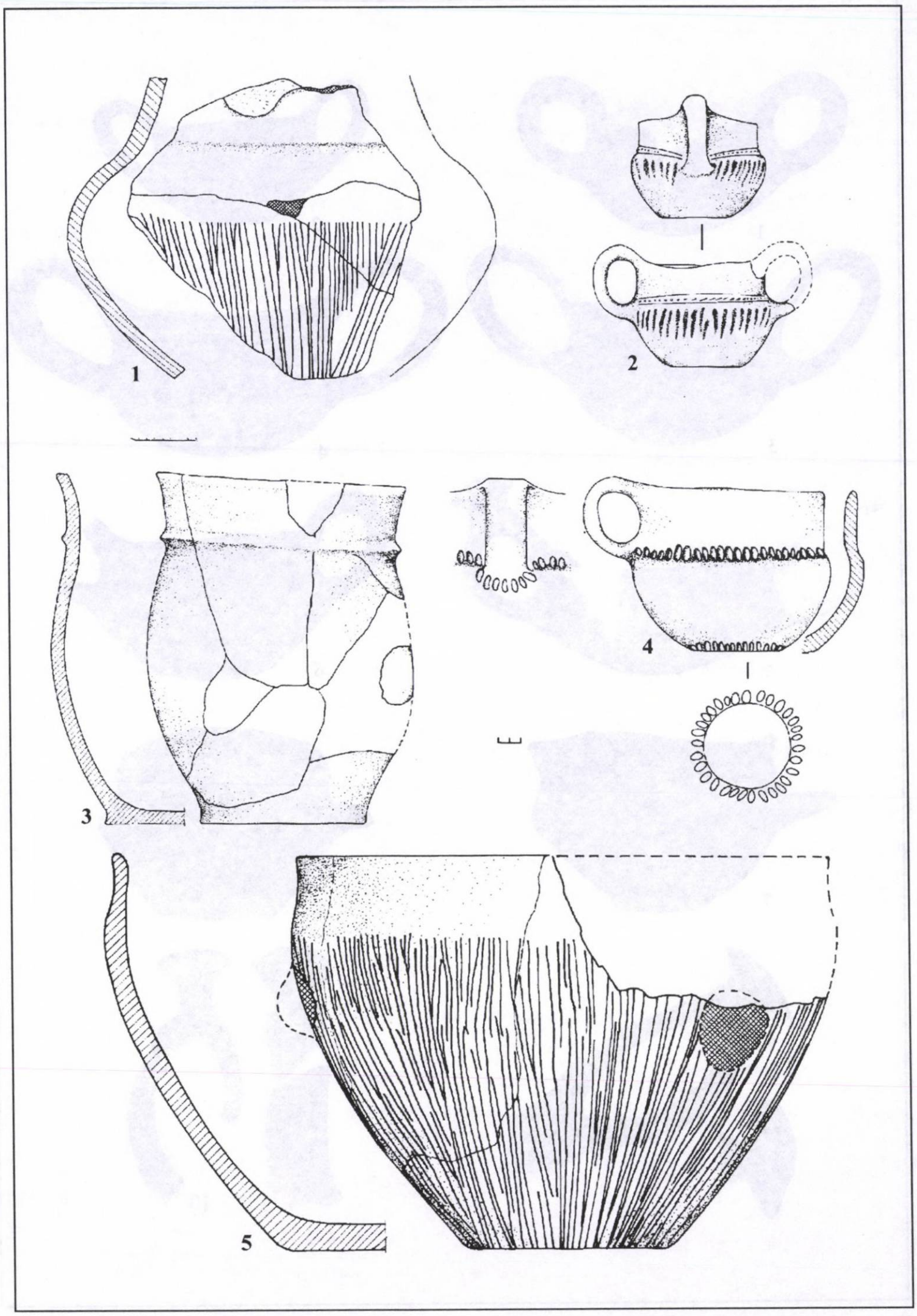
Pl. IV. Noua pottery from the lower (1-7) and upper (8-19) levels of the Ţichindeal settlement (apud Popa–Boroffka 1994).



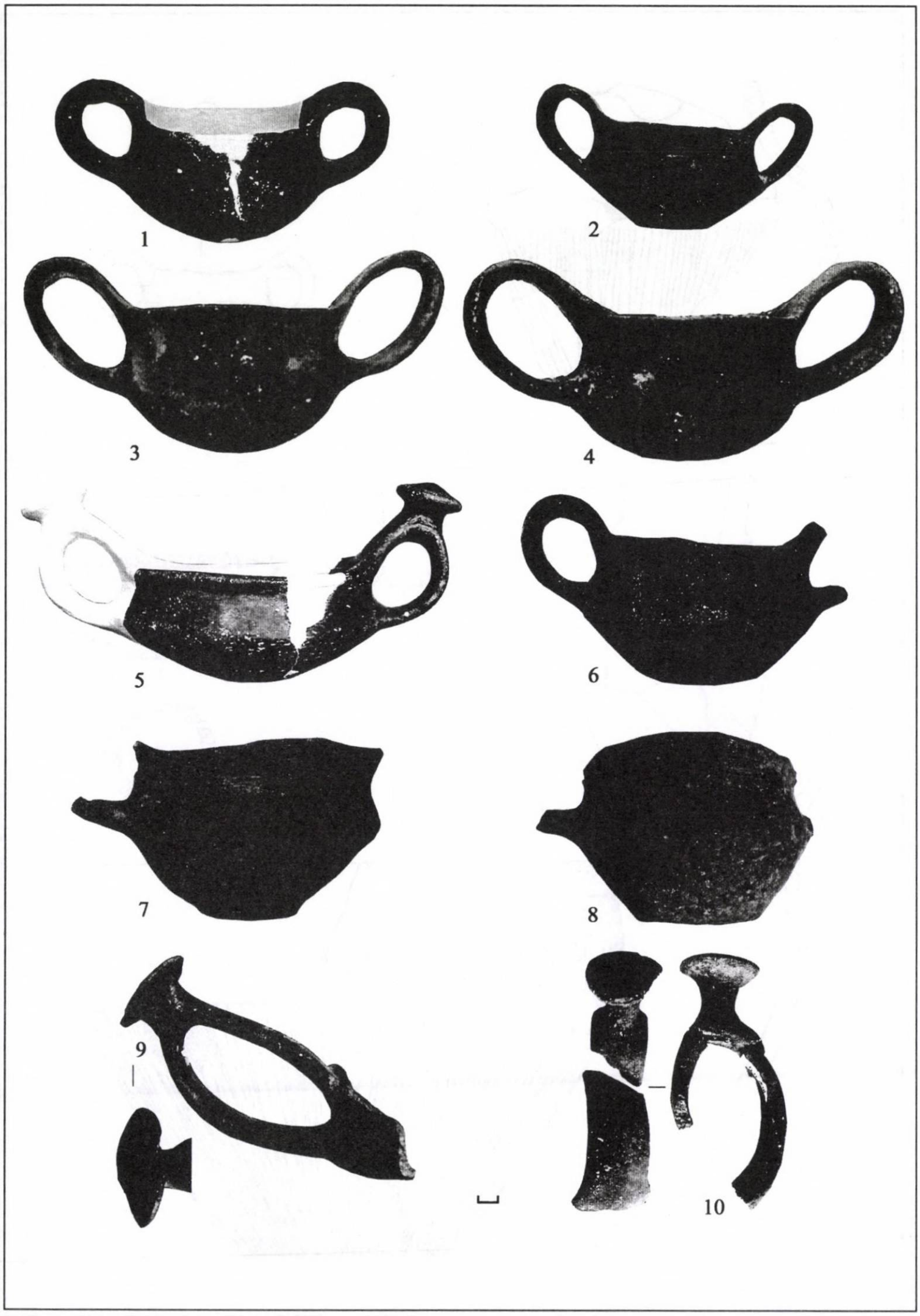
Pl. V. Sibişeni: Noua pottery from the complex 1/1996 (apud Andriţoiu-Popa-Simina 2004).



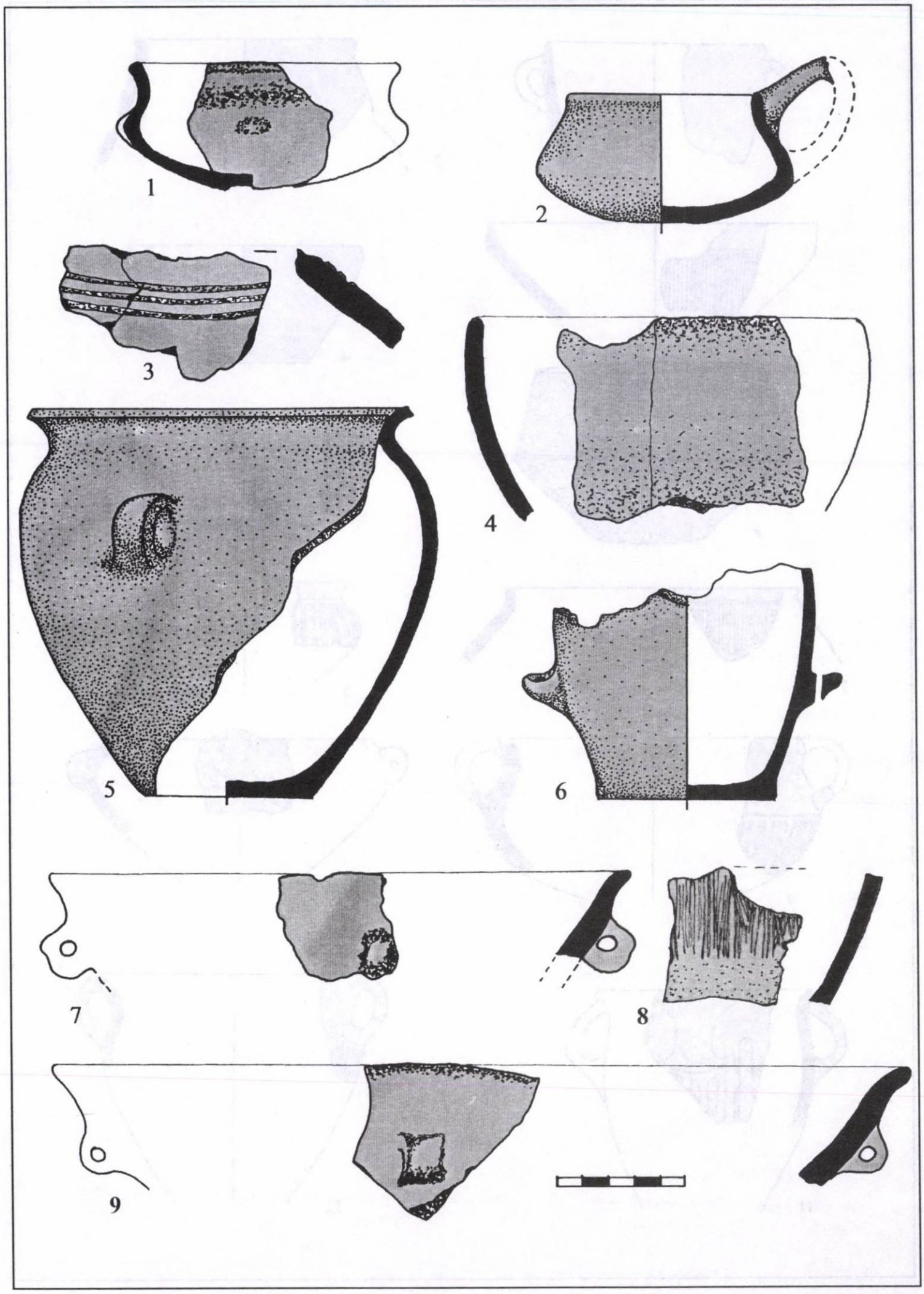
Pl. VI. Noua pottery from Cluj–Str. Banatului (1-3), Târgu Secuiesc (4), Şoimuş (5-6) and Olteni (7) (apud Wittenberger 2006 and Buzea 2006).



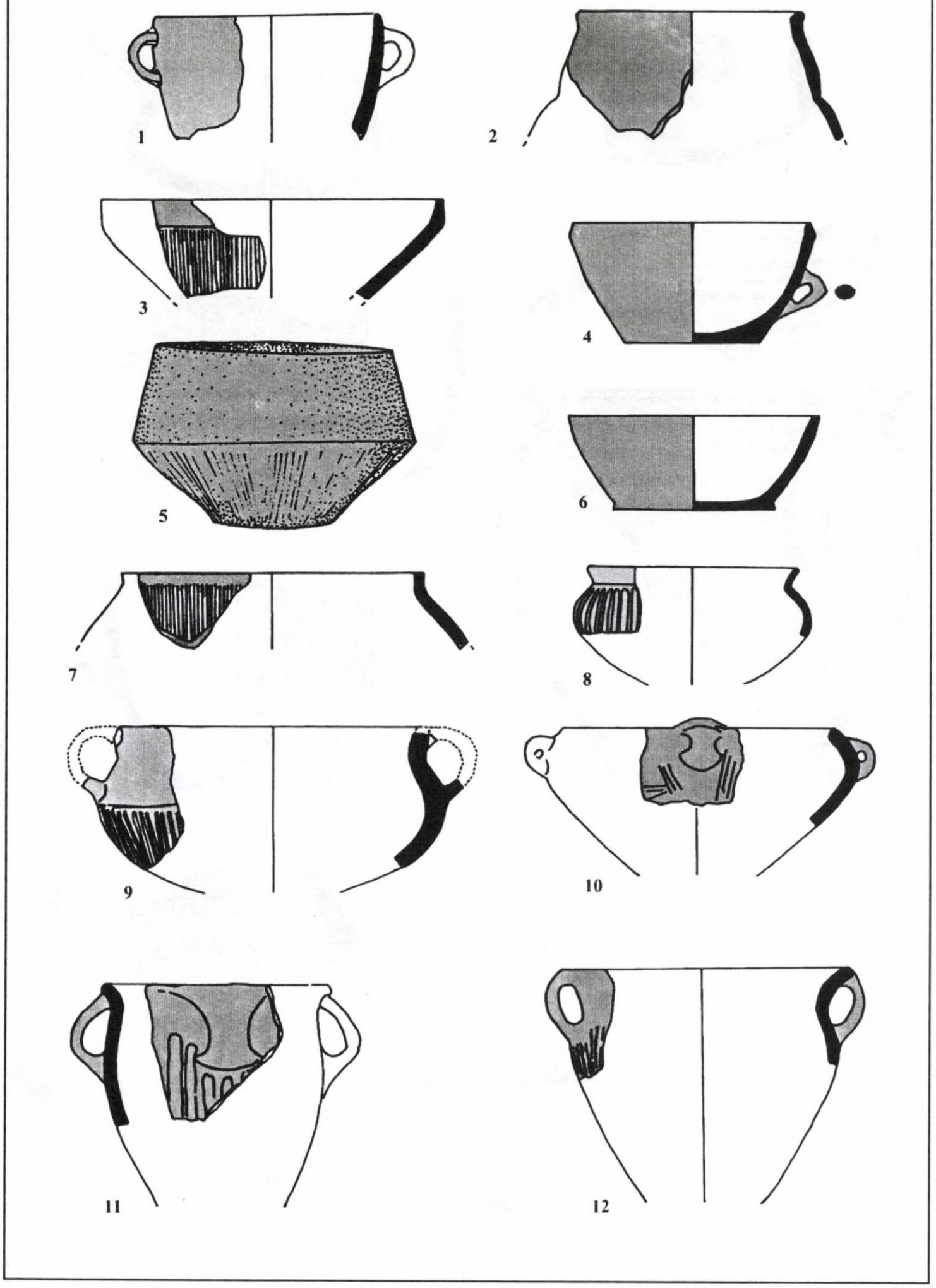
Pl. VII. Pottery from Nicoleni (1) and Jigodin (2-5) (apud Cavruc 1999).



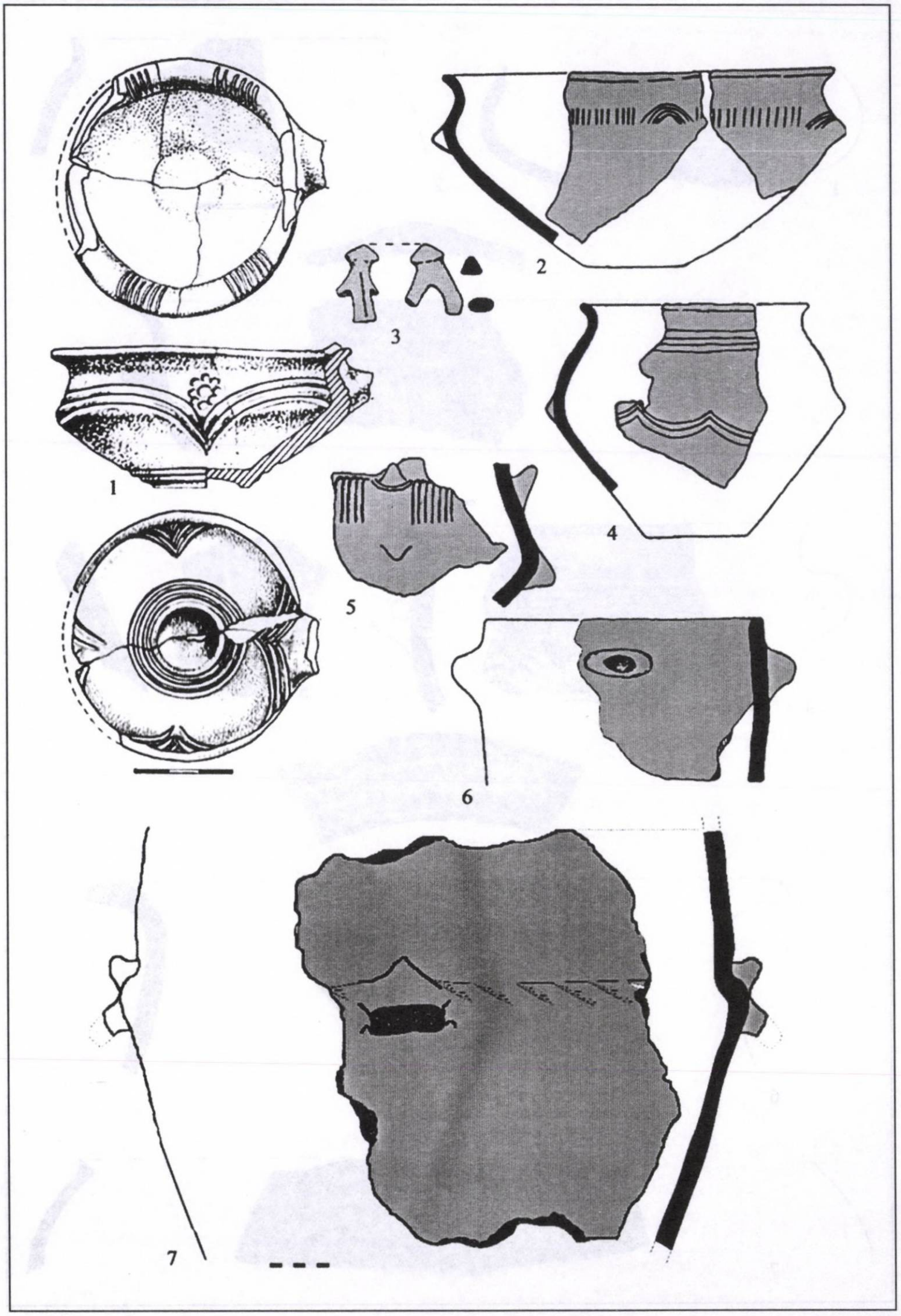
Pl. VIII. Late Noua pottery from Olteni (apud Buzea 2006).



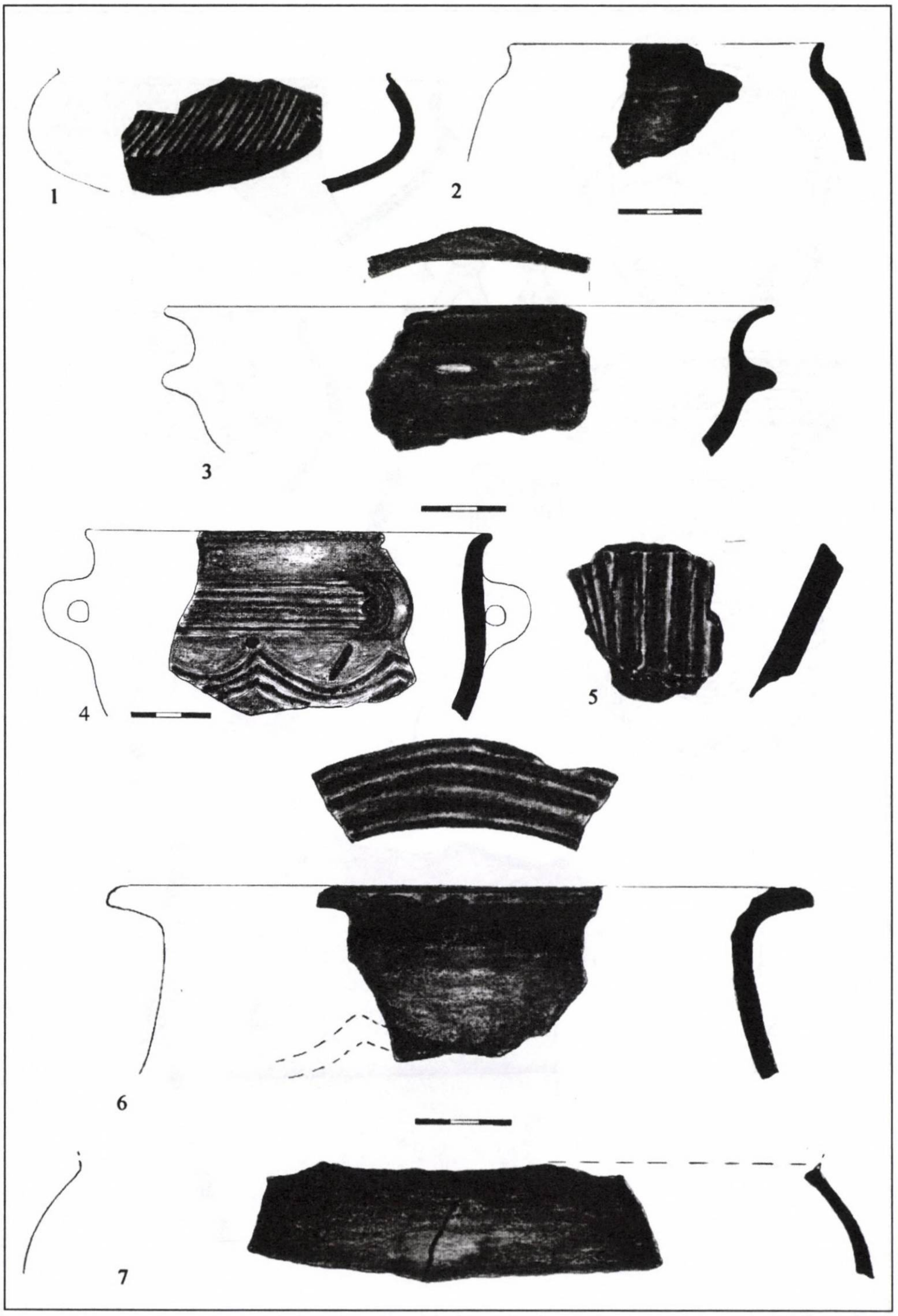
Pl. IX. Hallstatt A pottery from Aiud–Microraion settlement.



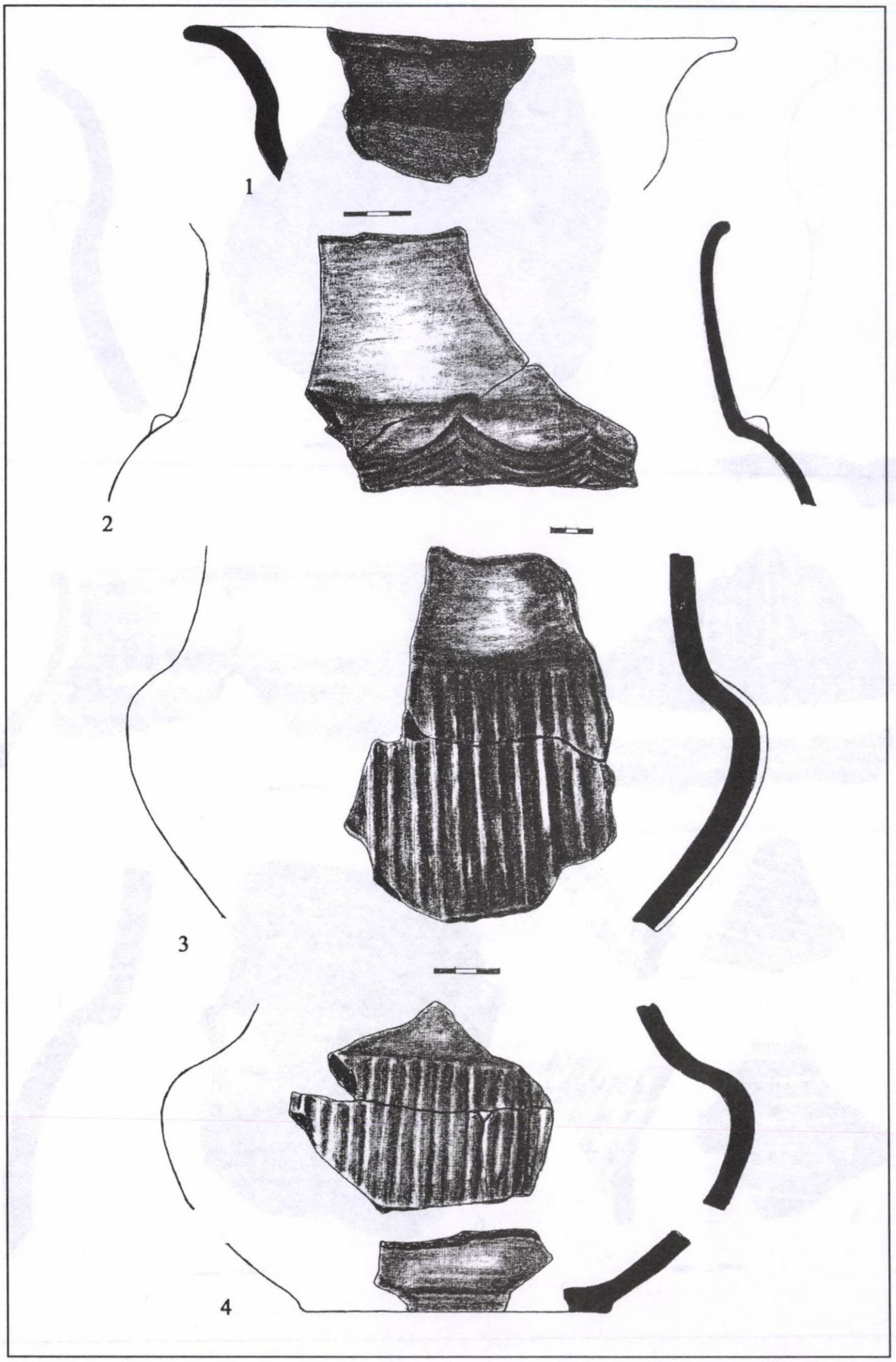
Pl. X. Band-Cugir–type pottery from Bădeni (1- 4, 6–12) and Band (5). (1- 4, 6–12 1-4, 6-12 apud Boroffka 1994 and Lazarovici–Milea 1971).



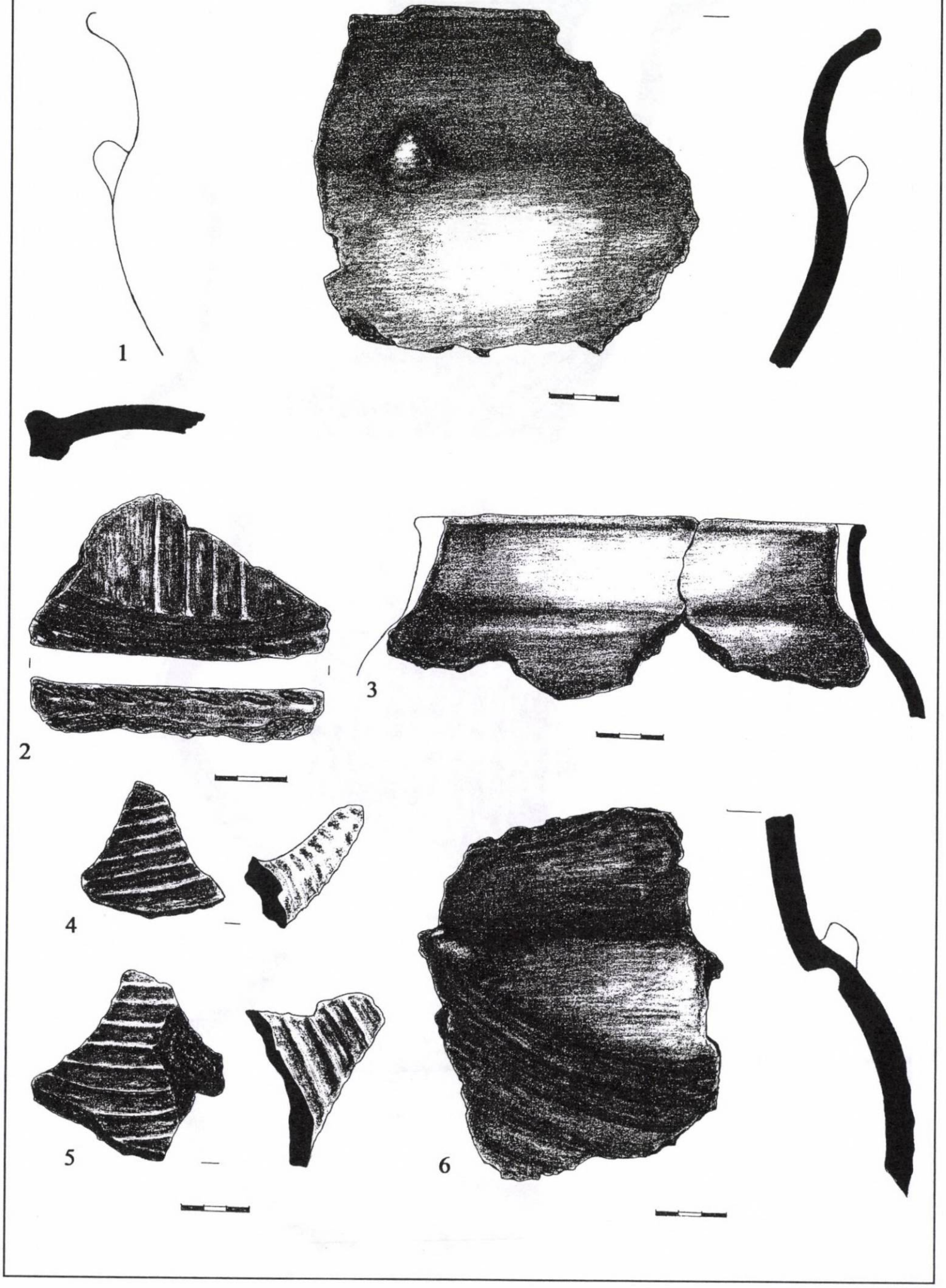
Pl. XI. Susani–type pottery from Simeria (2-6) and Hunedoara (1, 7) (2-6 - apud Andriţoiu 1992; 1 - apud Sârbu et al. 2005).



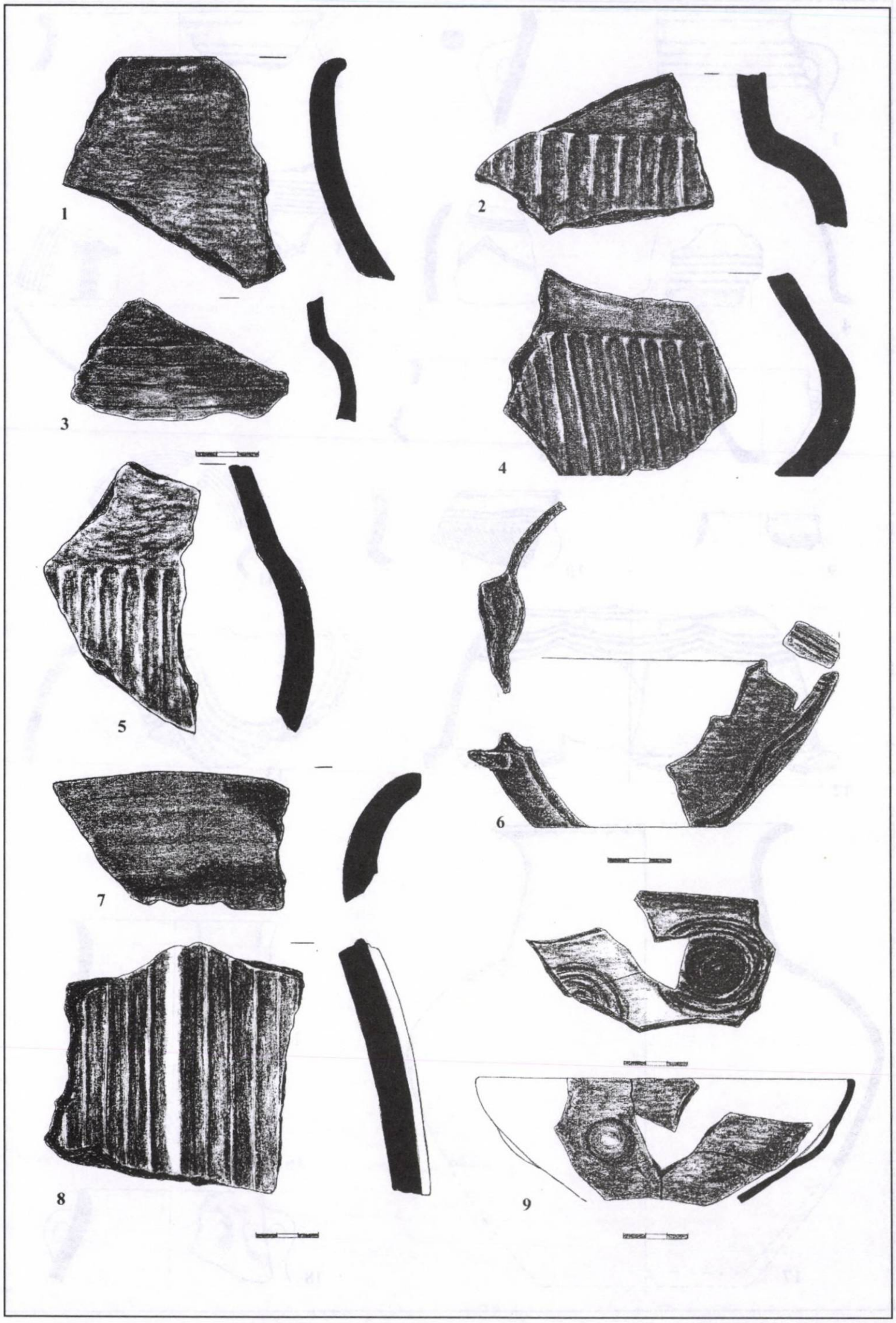
Pl. XII. Gáva I pottery from the Alba Iulia–Recea-Monolit settlement (1-7 complex 1/S 075).



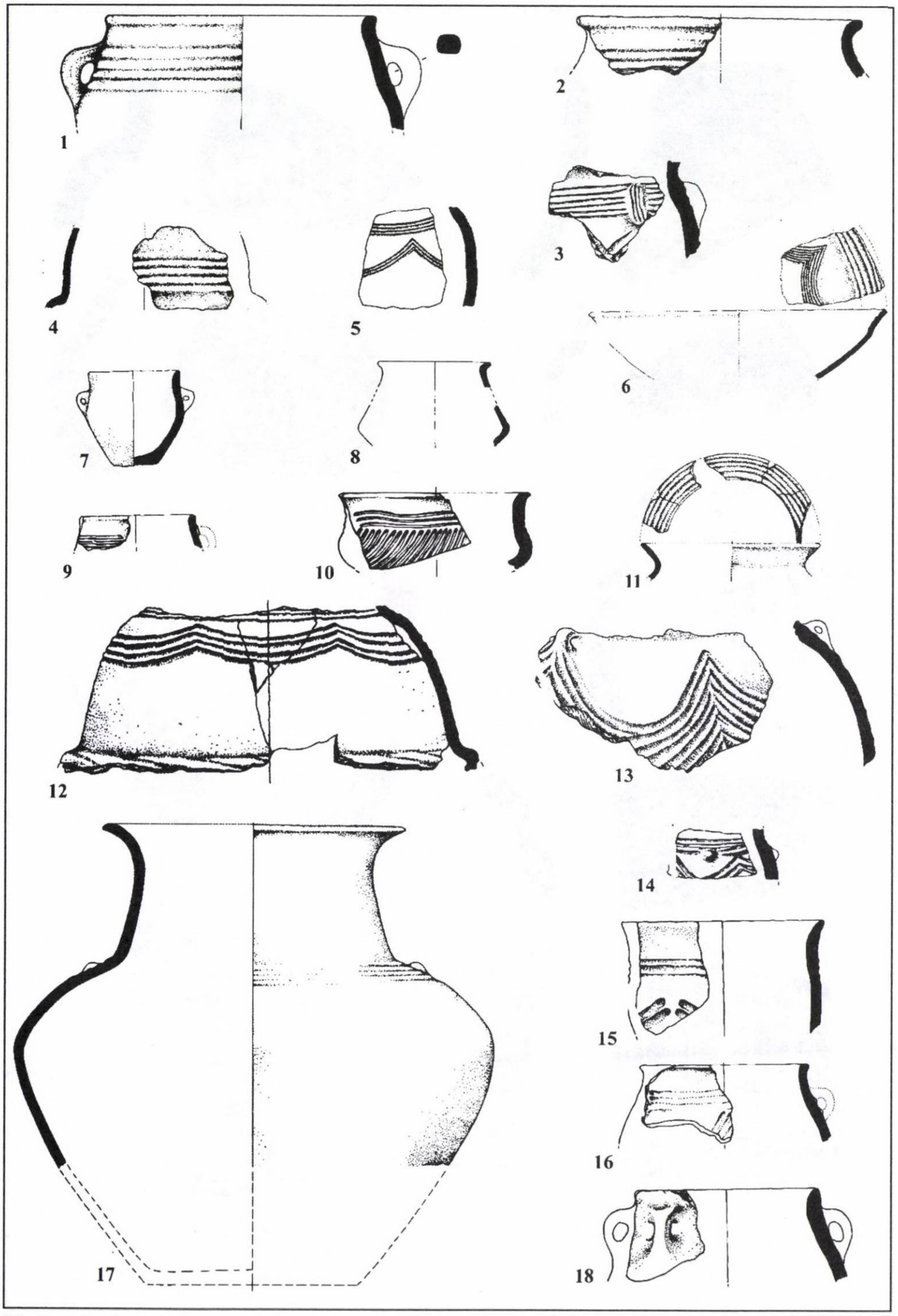
Pl. XIII. Gáva II pottery found in pit-house 6 from Teleac.



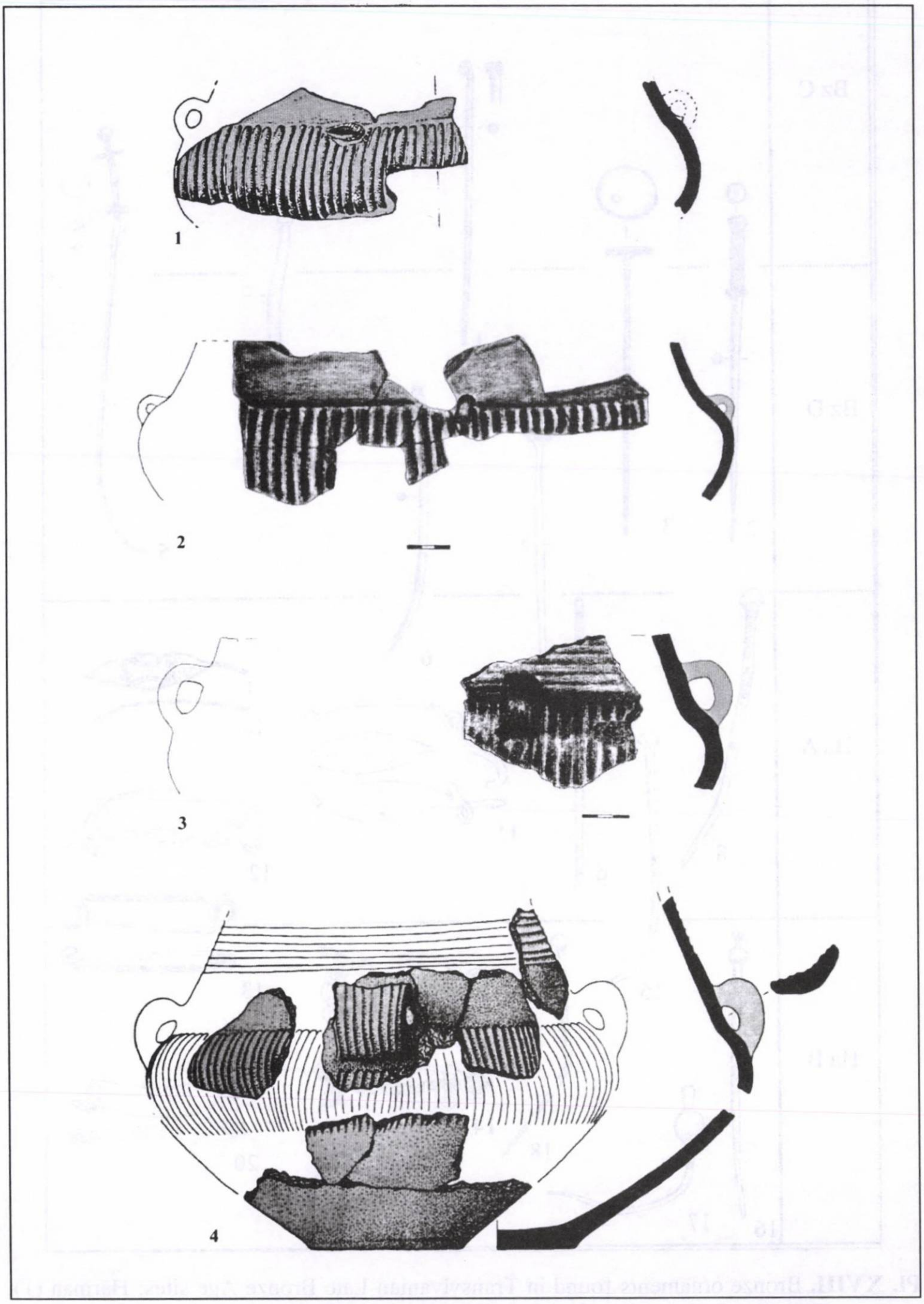
Pl. XIV. Gáva II pottery found in pit-house 6 from Teleac.



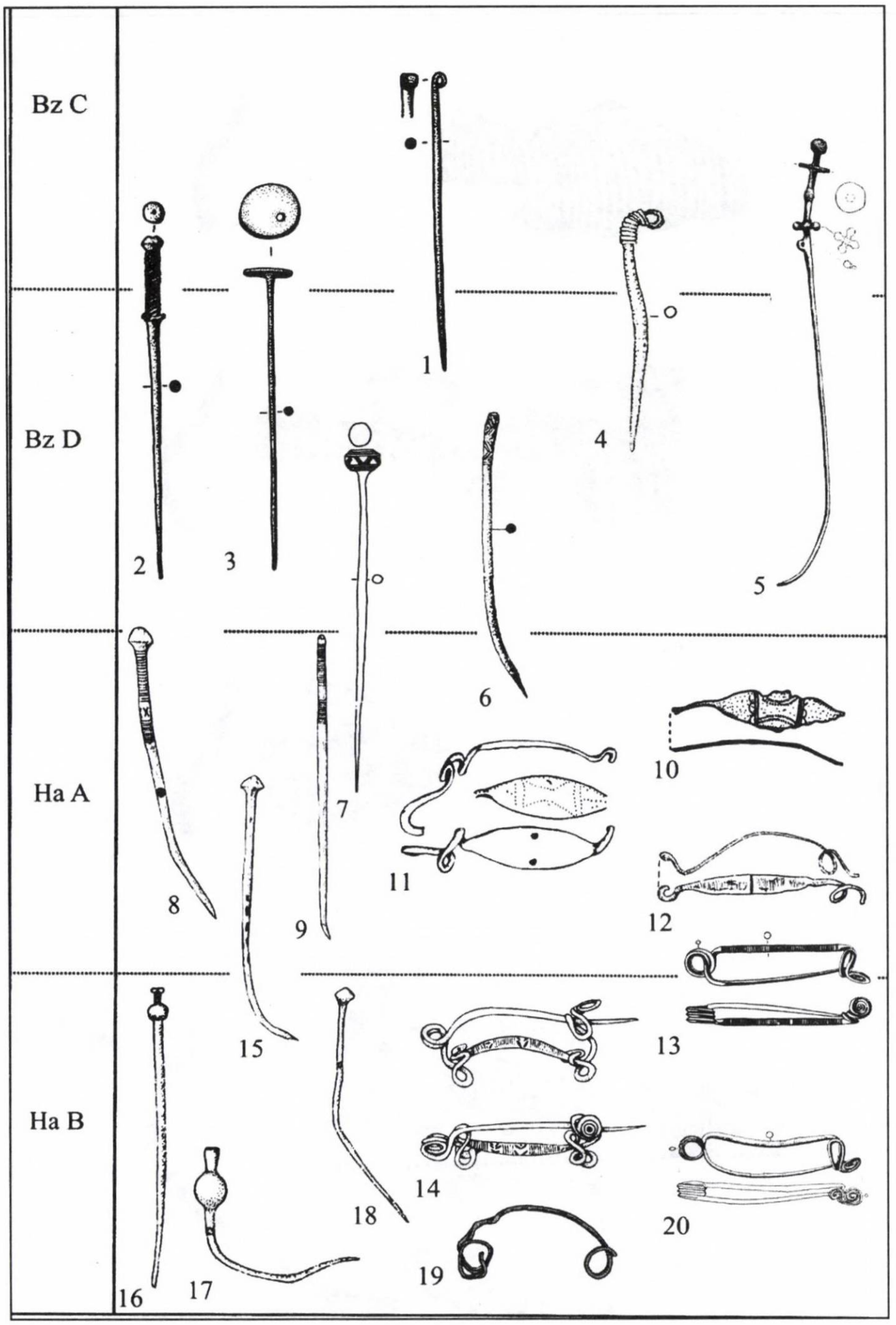
Pl. XV. Gáva II pottery found in pit-house 6 from Teleac.



Pl. XVI. Early Gáva pottery from the Augustin–Tipia Ormenişului settlement (apud Costea et al. 2006).



Pl. XVII. Two-handled Gáva grooved vessels from Augustin (1), Alba Iulia–Recea-Monolit (2), Teleac (3), and Sanislău–Cserepes (4) (1 - apud Costea et al. 2006; 4 - apud Kacsó 2008).



Pl. XVIII. Bronze ornaments found in Transylvanian Late Bronze Age sites: Hărman (1), Cluj–Strada Banatului (2), Rotbav (3-4), Petea (5), Uioara de Jos (6), Bădeni (7) Augustin (8-9, 11, 14-15), Cugir (10), Teleac (12, 16-19), Porumbeni (13) and Cernat (20) (1-3 apud Florescu 1991; 4 apud Dietrich 2009; 5 apud Marta 2009; 6 apud Ciugudean 1994; 7 apud Boroffka 2004; 8-9, 11, 14-15 apud Costea et al. 2006; 20 apud Bader 1983; 12, 16-19 apud Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991).

Observations on graves in Lapuş

Biba Teržan

The following investigations are based upon exceptional finds from the tumulus cemetery at Lapuş, province of Maramureş in northern Transylvania, which today still remain enigmatic.

Located in a landscape of undulating hills, this expansive cemetery comprises several groups of tumuli as well as individual tumulus graves. Reportedly there were originally ca. 70 tumuli present there. Twenty mounds have since been excavated, but published only to a scant extent. Regrettably, due to the poor state of publication only a few elaborately decorated ceramic vessels and metal grave goods can be assembled as find complexes.[1] Nevertheless, they can be viewed as leading finds of great import for our line of inquiry.

According to the excavator C. Kacsó, there are essential differences in the manner of burial among the individual tumuli at Lapuş. These divergences can be summed up in three basic forms.

The first burial form includes mounds that were built directly above the place of the funeral pyre. Before a tumulus was erected, some of the burnt bones were collected and placed in the centre of the mound. The remaining residue from the funeral pyre was shoved to the sides, and grave goods like vessels and metal objects placed upon it. In some of the tumuli the remains of the funeral pyre were first covered with gravel, and then the grave goods were deposited. The mound heaped above the grave extends far beyond the area of the funeral pyre; pottery was found in the earth that had been intentionally broken, indicating a special funerary ritual.

The second burial form includes tumuli, in which burials in urns are found, in contrast to unurned scattered cremations of the first group. However, occasionally burnt remains appeared in the earth heaped above the tumuli. This indicates that the cremation of the deceased did not take place at the site of the tumulus, but elsewhere in the vicinity.

The third possible form involves tumuli in which scarcely any human bones are present, but instead large amounts of burnt remains, pottery sherds, pieces of clay, stones, charred animal bones and also metal objects. If these contexts should be viewed as graves and not as relicts of special rituals or even as metallurgical activities, then one could assume that they are cenotaphs.[2]

Kacsó has a chronological explanation for these differences in burial forms at the cemetery in Lapuş. He ascribes tumuli with unurned cremation graves to the first phase, and tumuli with urn burials as well as "cenotaphs" to the second phase. This temporal assignment of the tumuli bases upon the characteristic grave goods, in particular the pottery.

In the thus far only partially published repertory of ceramics from Lapuş, three to four groupings in the pottery are clearly recognizable. They can be differentiated according to form and decoration, and they can be further subdivided as well. Due to limited time and space a detailed treatment of the pottery cannot be made here; therefore, a brief description of the groups must suffice.

The most outstanding type among the ceramics is the vessel with a tall cylindrical or conical neck, and with large horns or even animal protomes in the form of a bull[3] or dog's head (Fig. 1). The surface of the vessels is decorated expansively with various motifs in incised or chip-carved (*Kerbschnitt-*) techniques. The motifs are ordered into several zones that run in a parallel, diagonal or wavy course. It is noteworthy that figural representations appear tall as

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[1] Kacsó 1975; ibid. 1994; ibid. 2001a, ibid. 2001b; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 50–64. Thereby, the great difference in quality between the drawings in the articles of 1975 and 2001a is quite a disadvantage. Furthermore, there are a few discrepancies in the assignment of some of the vessels to tumuli.

[2] Kacsó 2001a, 236 f.; ibid. 2001b, 36 f. Kacsó's reason for viewing these as "collective graves" is not clear in his description. In this respect, see also Motzoi-Chicideanu 1999–2001, 227 ff. Fig. 18.

[3] Opposite Kacsó's erroneous attribution (Kacsó 2001a, 232), this does not represent the head of a ram.

well. On the one hand, there are animals, probably wolves, and radiating suns, which form a frieze in the upper part of the neck. On the other, anthropomorphic figures in a worshipping position with the hands in the form of a branch decorate the area of the vessels shoulder between the horns or animal protomes. The last figures are rather similar to the upright, variously decorated and sometimes grouped rows of triangles, which form either the lower frieze around the neck or the outcurving rim of the vessels. They appear in combination with the tree-branch pattern.[4]

The second characterising ceramic group consists of channelled pottery, which is likewise represented predominantly by large vessels with a tall cylindrical or conical neck (Fig. 2). These vessels too are decorated with large, mostly snail-like horns, large bosses encircled by a channel, and larger knobs as well as with bands of wavy or spiral channels.[5]

Closely related to this last group are amphorae with a tall cylindrical or conical neck, in the centre of which two handles are attached (Fig. 2). As a rule, the neck is decorated with several horizontal, incised bands. The belly is decorated with horns or bosses as well as channels, that is to say, in the manner of channelled pottery.[6]

The fourth group is constituted by bowls with a marked rim, a slightly convex body and a flat base (Fig. 1–2). The bowls are decorated with very canonical patterns in the incised or chip-carved technique: On the base is either a concentric spiral or a circle surrounded by rays; the vessel's walls carry complex spiral motifs as well as hanging triangles (*Wolfszahn*) or standing triangles, zigzag lines and diagonal strokes. The entire composition on each bowl relays the impression of dynamic movement, perhaps the cyclic course of the sun through the firmament or the cosmos.[7]

There is a general consensus among scholars as to the dating and the cultural ascription of these ceramic groups, and this can be summarised as follows:[8] According to the kind of decoration, the vessels with a tall cylindrical or conical neck, horns and animal protomes as well as bowls with spiral ornamentation all belong to chip-carved pottery (Fig. 1–2), in the tradition of the so-called "Carpato-Mycenaean decorative style", which is characteristic for the Suciu de Sus culture. It is assumed that this culture developed further in Lapuş[9] and is designated there as a "post classical phase"–Lapuş 1. It is dated to the same time as Hänsel's Late Danubian I or Reinecke Bronze Age C2/D.[10]

By contrast, channelled pottery, in particular the tall cylindrical or conical necked vessels with snail-like protuberances, are brought into association with the Gava culture (Fig. 2). Further, although their basic form resembles leading forms of the Kyjatice culture, the amphorae are also assigned to Gava pottery, in view of their channelled decoration (Fig. 2).[11] This pottery then characterises the phase Lapuş 2 and is dated to Hänsel's Late Danubian II or Hallstatt A.

At first glance this chronological division seems quite logical and plausible. However, a preliminary investigation on combinations among the grave goods found in the tumuli at Lapuş reveals a surprising picture of a different consequence.

It is conspicuous that weapons are only found in tumuli in which chip-carved vessels with tall cylindrical or conical neck are present (Fig. 1). Indeed, the regular equipment consists of a sword or dagger and an axe as well as a socketed axe, and occasionally a chisel (tumulus 4, 2 and 1).[12] The tumuli concerned are those with unurned cremation graves.

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[4] Kascó 1975, 55 ff. Fig. 5–8; ibid. 2001a, Fig. 4–11; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 50–52. See also Teržan 2005.
[5] Kacsó 2001a, Fig. 12–21; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 54; 55,3.
[6] Kacsó 1975, Fig. 5; 13,2; ibid. 2001a, Fig. 20; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 53; 55,2.
[7] Kacsó 1975, 53 ff., Fig. 2–4; ibid. 2001a, Fig. 22–25; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 26–28.
[8] See Kacsó 1975; ibid. 2001a; ibid. 2001b; ibid. 2004b; Vulpe 1975; Bader 1979, 21 ff.; Hüttel 1979, 44 ff. Yet, a detailed discussion of the problematic cannot be made here.
[9] In this reference, see Hüttel's critical remarks; Hüttel 1979, 44.
[10] Hänsel 1968, 22 ff., 168 ff. Fig. 2; Beilage 2, 5, etc.
[11] Cp. Kemenczei 1984, 64 ff. Pl. 130, 1. 3; 133,14; see also Hänsel 1987.
[12] Kacsó 1975, 49 ff. Fig. 1; ibid. 2001a, Fig. 26, H 1,H 2, H 4.

By contrast, weapons do not appear in tumuli with urn burials and in which vessels with cylindrical or conical necks and channelled decoration predominate (Fig. 2); instead only small cheekpieces, pendants,[13] small rings and buttons as well as occasional bracelets, two pins and one fibula. These can possibly be viewed as the jewellery of female dress (tumulus 6, 20, 21, B).[14] These differences in the pottery, in weaponry, in dress as well as in the manner of burial can also be interpreted as gender-specific.

In consequence, we have the following results:

Male individuals, in particular outstanding warriors, were placed to rest in tumuli, in which the deceased was cremated on the spot in the grave. Further, the deceased was furnished with the characteristic burial goods of weapons and splendid vessels with cylindrical or conical neck and with chip-carved (*Kerbschnitt*) decoration (Fig. 1). By contrast, the graves of females can be presumed in tumuli with urn burials and furnished with tall-necked, channelled vessels and jewellery (Fig. 2). Only few graves display both kinds of tall vessels together, that is, with chip-carved and with channelled decoration. Examples are tumulus 5 and 9,[15] which possibly or even most likely held a double burial or a collective burial (cp. Fig. 1–2).

It is noteworthy that bowls with spiral ornamentation are found in graves in association with chip-carved pottery as well as with channelled pottery; that is to say, this form is not a gender-specific grave gift (Fig. 1–2). Bowls are found among funerary equipment of the male deceased (tumulus 1, 2) and the female deceased (tumulus 10, 21), or in double burials (tumulus 9). If this allocation is correct, then neither pottery with chip-carved decoration nor that with channels can be considered as a fine chronological indicator–as hitherto assumed–for the temporal division of the cemetery at Lapuş into two phases. However, this does not imply that there is no depth in time in the cemetery and that the pottery cannot be divided according to other viewpoints. Yet, such an investigation is not possible here nor is it possible externally due to the present state of publication.

A further important aspect for a new understanding of the cemetery at Lapuş is offered by the topographical location of the tumuli with gender-specific funerary goods; namely, a specific distribution is recognizable. Tumuli with burials of warriors are located exclusively in the western group, where they are arranged close to one another in its eastern area (Fig. 3, above, denoted by triangles). Tumulus 9, which is possibly a double burial, is the only exception (Fig. 2). It lies in the southwestern part, where tumuli with channelled pottery, that is, the burials of females, are frequent (Fig. 3, above, denoted by circles). Thereby, the largest tumulus, tumulus 21 (Fig. 2), with one of the richest dress outfits, holds the central position.

Fewer tumuli of the second group, located somewhat to the southeast, have been investigated. However, when compared to the first group, certain differences can be discerned. The southernmost tumulus 20 in this group held the burial of a female, as indicated by vessels with a conical neck and channelled decoration and by bracelets. The burial is remarkable in that a piece of a metal bar ingot was also among the grave goods (Fig. 2). Another mound in this group, tumulus 13, yielded a casting mould (Fig. 4). Hence, both of these finds[16] are evidence of the deceased person's association with metalworking (Fig. 3, below, denoted by a square).

Yet another burial custom predominates in the third group in the northeast. As mentioned above, no human remains were found in these tumuli, and, therefore, they have

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[13] Comparisons for the pendant in a form of eight (8) in tumulus 9 are present in hoard as Domăneşti II, dated to the phase Uriu-Domăneşti (Petrescu-Dimboviţa 1977, 59, Pl. 45, 13-14; Bader 1978, 219, Pl. 70, 13-14)as well as in a grave in Riegsee (Müller-Karpe 1959, Pl. 181, 4).and in a somewhat later burials of females in Budapest-Bekásmegyer and Tolmin. Cp. Kalicz-Schreiber 1991, 191 Fig. 24, 11; Svoljšak/ Pogačnik 2001, Pl. 88,6.

[14] Kacsó 2001a, Fig. 26, H B; 27, H 6, H 9; 28, H 21.

[15] Kacsó 1975, Fig. 12,2; 13,2 (tumulus 5); ibid. 2001a, Fig. 9 (tumulus 5); 11 and 16 (tumulus 9).

[16] Kacsó 2001a, Fig. 27, H 20; H 13.

been presumed to be cenotaphs. The only possible exception might be tumulus 12,[17] which lies on the periphery of this group. It is noteworthy that similar to tumulus 20, this tumulus also held several channelled vessels as well as a piece of raw material in the form of a perforated bronze plano-convex ingot, resp. casting cake (*Bronzegusskuchen*) (Fig. 2).[18]

Other tumuli in this group yielded remarkably large amounts of broken pottery, pieces of clay, stones and charred animal bones as well as other objects, which will receive special attention here (Fig. 3, below, denoted by squares). These objects comprise moulds for socketed axes (tumulus 11 and 16), broken tools such as one or two punches or awls of different size (tumulus 11) and fragments of scrap metal, a miscast and a round ingot (tumulus 18) (Fig. 4).[19] This spectrum of finds, ranging from raw material and scrap metal, mould and miscasts to tools, presents unambiguous evidence of marked metallurgical activities. If these tumuli should be interpreted as burial places, then they are indicative of a special ritual treatment of persons, who were involved with metalworking.

From the topographical location, the kind of burial and the funerary goods in the individual tumuli and/or groups of tumuli, it is possible to further distinguish a marked social division and differentiation among the population buried at Lapuş. And this division or differentiation apparently resulted from a specialisation within the division of work.

The first group of tumuli in the west belonged to the elite, which was determined by warriors. They are represented in graves by weaponry and splendid vessels with horns or animal protomes, in some cases even gold jewellery (tumulus 2 and 7).[20] The female component of this elite social level, conversely, is represented by large vessels with channelled decoration and by various forms of jewellery.

In view of the funerary equipment, the second southern group of tumuli and the third northeastern group appear to be quite modest. Yet in their mode of burial as well as in their furnishings both groups display certain common elements, especially with regard to objects that have to do with metalworking. Thus, the assumption lies close at hand that these are the burials, cenotaphs or the remains from special funerary rituals for craftsmen or metallurgists (casters) and their relatives. It is notable, thereby, that on the periphery of each group of tumuli is one larger tumulus, that likely holds the burial of a female with large channelled vessels (tumulus 20 and 12 respectively), and which forms a link to the first group of tumuli, the dominant warrior elite (Fig. 3).

If this argumentation is accepted, then the question arises anew as to the time span of the use of the cemetery at Lapuş. As the aforementioned, specified leading ceramic forms have been proven to be gender- and even status-specific and for that reason are essentially coeval, the metal goods offer a more precise chronological framework.

Among the weapons are the blades of daggers (Fig. 1, tumulus 4 and tumulus 2), which correspond with the type Rozavlea according to Kacsó, or type B, variant 2 of the tongued daggers according to Kemenczei,[21] and, thus, belong to the hoard horizon of Uriu-Opalyi or Hänsel's Late Danubian I.

Daggers of this type appear often in the wider surroundings of Lapuş (Fig. 5), for example, in the hoards at Rozavlea and Galoşpetreu.[22] However, the last named hoard should be dated rather to the phase Hallstatt A 1 and, therefore, attests the presence of this dagger type in a further and later milieu. Thereby, it is surprising that almost all hitherto known daggers figure in the deposition of hoards, that is to say, as an offering to the gods–in the sense of

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[17] Unfortunately, Kacsó's description of this mound is very general and imprecise.
[18] Kacsó 2001a, Fig. 27, H 12.
[19] Kacsó 2001a, Fig. 27, H 11 3; 28, H 16 1–2 (moulds), 27, H 11, 1–2 (tools); 28, H 18 1–2 (scrap metal, fragments of a socketed axe and a sickle), 4 (miscast sickle), 3 (round ingot). On the ingots, see also Žeravica 1993, 124 ff. No. 728–742.
[20] Kacsó 2001a, 234, Fig. 26, H 2 3–6; 27, H 7; ibid. 2004a, Pl. 65,2. See also Teržan 2005.
[21] Kacsó 2001a, 234, Fig. 26, H 2 2; H 4 2; Kemenczei 1988, 28 ff. No. 112 A–116.
[22] Kacsó 1993; ibid. 2004a, 206, Fig. 71, 1; 72, 1; Chidioşan/ Soroceanu 1995, 169 ff. Fig. 2,2.

Hänsel's interpretation.[23] The only exception are three daggers, namely from Asuaju de Jos and Lapuş. The first from Asuaju de Jos, in an excellent state of preservation, was found in a peculiar position: inserted vertically into the earth, which is indicative of a special cultic action of martial character.[24] The situation in Lapuş is different. There the daggers were cremated together with the deceased and buried in the grave. Considering that spatially and temporally daggers are limited to hoards, that is, meant for the gods, the daggers in the tumuli at Lapuş can be seen as special grave goods, which implies a corresponding kind of ritual action: They are indicative of the deification of the deceased.

A similar position in time can be determined for the disc-butted axes (*Nackenscheibenäxte*) as well. They belong to type 3, variant Lapuş, according to Vulpe, and represent a characteristic form in the hoard horizon of Uriu, or Hänsel's phase Late Danubian I. Thereby, they can be considered as one of the oldest of this type.[25] It is remarkable that they appear in relatively small numbers within a relatively limited area around Lapuş (Fig. 6), which may be indicative of a specific value of these battle axes. Interestingly, opposite the daggers discussed above, these axes appear mostly as individual finds; therefore, the presence of axes as grave goods in Lapuş presents yet another rare exception. The miniature example of an axe found in tumulus 2 likewise demonstrates their special interpretation as status symbols. It can probably be viewed as a gift in the burial of a child (Fig. 1, tumulus 2).

The temporal assignment of the slender socketed axes made of bronze as well as moulds for these axes also results in a similar time span of their use: from Hänsel's Late Danubian I and into Hallstatt A 1.[26] Here the socketed axe made of iron discovered in tumulus 1 is quite outstanding; found in association with pottery with notched (*Kerbschnitt*) decoration, it was dated to phase Lapuş I or Hänsel's Late Danubian 1.[27] However, it seems that a surge in iron metallurgy in the northern Balkan-Carpathian sphere began only later with the hoard horizon of Cernat, the so-called winged axe (*Ärmchenbeil*) horizon. At that time massive tools and weapons made of iron appear frequently. As Hänsel could convincingly demonstrate, the finds from the blacksmith shop at Cernat and related finds such as those from Bîrlad date rather to the phase Hallstatt A.[28] This date also renders a more plausible time frame for the iron axe and–with that–tumulus 1 in Lapuş. Nevertheless, an older date cannot be excluded entirely, if one considers the Füzesabony-Otomani-age sickle found in Gánovce in eastern Slovakia.[29]

The few characteristic pieces of jewellery also complement the time span circumscribed by weaponry for the cemetery at Lapuş. The decorated bronze pin from tumulus 21 has convincing comparisons in the nearby hoard of Popeşti as well as in the tumulus grave at Nyirkarász, the latter found together with a knob-headed pin (*Warzennadel*), a disc-butted axe (*Nackenscheibenaxt*) and pottery with chip-carved (*Kerbschnitt-*) decoration. All three pins closely resemble the Middle Bronze Age type of pin with a nail- to funnel-shaped head[30] and, hence, can hardly be dated any later than Hänsel's Late Danubian I. Although bronze cheekpieces or cheekpiece pendants do not belong to chronologically sensitive objects, the example from tumulus 21 finds an analogy in the hoard of Ungureni II, and the cheekpiece from tumulus 6 is even analogous with the moulds from Ciumeşti.[31] So, both small cheekpieces can be assigned to the hoard horizon of Uriu-Opalyi, that is, to Hänsel's Late Danubian I.[32]

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[23] Cp. Hänsel 1997, 11 ff.
[24] Kacso 1993, 39 ff. Fig. 1–2; Kacsó 2004, Pl. 72, 1; cp. Soroceanu 1995, 35 ff. Fig. 12.
[25] Hänsel 1968, 64 f. map 12; Vulpe 1970, 79 ff. No. 338–342; Kacsó 2001a, 233 ff. Fig. 26, H 2 1; H 4 1.
[26] Kacsó 2001a, 234, Fig. 26, H 4 4; 28, H 16 1–2; Hänsel 1968, 72 ff.
[27] Kacsó 2001a, 234 f., Fig. 26, H 1; Boroffka 1987, 55 ff.; ibid. 1991, 4, 10; Wanzek 1989, 104 f.
[28] Hänsel 1976, 156 ff; see also Wesse 1990, 143 ff. Pl. 27, 177.
[29] Furmánek 2000, 153 ff. Fig. 2.
[30] Cp. Hänsel 1968, 90, 56, 10; map 18; Moszolics 1960, 113 ff. Pl. 69, 7–8; 70, 6–7; Kacsó 1995, 95 ff. Fig. 2,2; ibid. 2001a, 238, Fig. 28, H 2 12; Innerhofer 2000, 150 ff., Pl. 38.
[31] Petrescu-Dimboviţa 1977, Pl. 133, 5b, 9a; Kacso 2001a, 238, Fig. 27, H 6 3; ibid. 2003, 267 ff. Pl. 5, 2; 10.
[32] Similar cheekpiece pendants appear in associations of later date as well, for example in the grave at Bujoru; cp. Moscalu/Beda 1991, 197 ff. Fig. 7,2; 7 A.

Not much younger in date is the severely deformed and fragmented fibula found in tumulus 21 (Fig. 2, tumulus 21). It does not belong to the bow-fibula type,[33] but instead to the type violin-bow fibula. Because the spring is constructed of three forward coils, it can only be assigned to the fibula type Cernat, according to Bader (Fig. 8).[34] Fibulae of the type Cernat represent a local east Carpathian form of violin-bow fibulae (Fig. 7). Therefore, it can be assumed that they were worn at more or less the same time as their prototype, be it the western violin-bow fibulae of the type Unter-Radl or the southern type Unešić-Podumci (Fig. 5). Since fibulae of the type Unter-Radl first appear during the phase Riegsee-Baierdorf-Čaka-Uriu and then remain in style well into the phase Hallstatt A 1,[35] the dating of the fibula from Lapuş to Hänsel's Late Danubian I–Hallstatt A is not questionable, but instead quite plausible.

Further, an example of this type of fibula found in the settlement Porumbenii Mari in the district of Harghita (Fig. 8, 3) could be dated within the same chronological frame. From there pottery of the Gava -, Grăniceşti- and Babadag-type is also known. Namely a vessel with incised garlands has good analogies in an early phase of the Grăniceşti-group, according to László[36], which corresponds with phase Hallstatt A. Similar ornamentation is rather frequent on vessels with a tall conical or cylindrical neck as well, like in the hoard of Cornutel, dated even earlier to the phase Uriu-Domănesti[37]. Sherds with stamped strings, triangles and S-motifs, on the other hand, are typical for the Babadag pottery style, which according to Hänsel already began in the late phase of Hallstatt A period.[38] This pottery makes it possible that the fibula of the Cernat type from Porumbenii Mare also belongs within the chronological span of the same period. Perhaps somewhat later is the fibula in the hoard of Ghirişu Român (Fig. 8, 2), in view of some socketed axes that indicate the hoard's deposition in phase Hallstatt A 2/ B 1.[39] Hence, fibulae of the Cernat type can hardly be dated any later than the Hallstatt A period.

Almost the same chronological position is also held by fibulae of the Badeni type with a similar construction of the spring that coils forward like fibulae of the Cernat type. However, they represent a local variant of Pannonian fibulae of the Vösendorf type[40], with the characteristic 8-shaped bow endings (Fig.8, 5-6). Both of these types of fibulae–Cernat and Badeni–known exclusively in Transylvania and Transcarpathia seems to indicate contacts between the region of Lapuş and neighbouring groups on both sides of the Carpathians (Fig. 7).

In summary, the following picture can be outlined:

The major time of burials in the tumulus necropolis at Lapuş was during the Hänsel's phase Late Danubian I; it possibly continued into Hallstatt A 1. The population in Lapuş stood in the tradition of the Suciu de Sus culture; yet through the reception of some foreign elements it turned towards a new ideology, which is reflected in the practice of cremation burial customs.

Further, the cultivation of martial rituals can be observed, in which weaponry and also sets of vessels, especially richly decorated pottery, play a connotative role.[41] Thereby, it is indeed noteworthy that the pottery with figural decoration and animal protomes does not find

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[33] Kacsó 2001 a, 238, Fig. 28, H 21 4.
[34] Bader 1983, 15 ff. Pl. 1, 3–5.
[35] Cp. Betzler 1974, 16 ff., Pl. 1,8-13; 2, 14-22; Vinski Gasparini 1970; Hänsel 1976, 159 ff.; Bader 1983, 15 ff., Pl. 1, 3–5; Teržan 1994, 446 f. Fig. 82; Marta 2003 (who however did not recognize the essential feature of the fibulae of type Cernat and, thus, deals with them together with fibulae with an inward-coiled spiral, as in Gemeinlebarn). For the type Unter Radl see now also Pabst 2009, note 14, Map with list 1.
[36] Cp. Marta 2003, Pl. 3,3; László 1994, 186 ff., Fig. 25, Pl. 2, 3A.
[37] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 55, Pl. 35, 1.
[38] Cp. Marta 2003, 355 f., Pl. 3, 18; Hänsel 1976, 131 ff. Pl. 14, 9.10.13; 15,7; VI, 4.32-32; XI, 30.34.
[39] Cp. Bader 1983, 16, Pl. 1,5; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 145, Pl. 359,8.
[40] Betzler 1974, 21 ff., Pl. 2, 31-32.
[41] Cp. also Teržan 2005.

any formal correspondences of the same time and place.[42] This may signify that this pottery with its specific imagery and ritual was on the whole the expression of a specific form of identity of a new warrior elite. This elite presents itself in the grave through weaponry as grave goods, which should be interpreted not only as signs of power, but also to be understood as implication of deification. Apparently the elite had a command of metalworking and possibly disposed over the ores sources in the region as well. Like the distribution map of daggers of the type Rozvalea and of the Lapuş variant of disc-butted axes as well of the fibulae of Cernat type imply, the realm of this elite extended from the upper reaches of the Tisza River to the upper Mures (Fig. 5-7).[43] Its duration, however, was relatively short, although the dagger from Asuaju de Jos could possibly signify a ritual peacemaking.[44]

Until now the cemetery at Lapuş represents a great exception during the Late Bronze Age in its broader surroundings as well. To date there is no evidence of any "successors", neither in Transylvania nor farther in the eastern Carpathian region.

Daggers of type Rozavlea (according to Kacsó 1993) resp. type B 2 (according to Kemenczei 1988)

1. Ajak, Kom. Szabolcs-Szatmár, Hungary: hoard II (?) (Kacsó 1993, 40; Moszolics 1973, 117; Kemenczei 1988, 28 Taf. 9, 112 A).
2. Asuaju de Jos, Maramures, Romania: individual find (Kacsó 1993, 39 ff. Abb. 2; Kacsó 2004, Pl. 72, 1).
3. Bicaz, Maramures, Romania: hoards I and II (Kacsó 1993, 40 ff. Abb. 3, 1-5; Kacsó 2004, Pl. 76-77).
4. Căpleni, Satu Mare, Romania: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 6).
5. Căşei, Cluj, Romania: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 7).
6. Foieni, Saru Mare, Romania: hoard ? (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 8).
7. Felsődobzsa, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Hungary: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42; Moszolics 1973, 134 f. Taf. 47, 28).
8. Felsőzsolca, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Hungary: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42; Mozsolics 1973, 136 Taf. 57, A 1; Kemenczei 1988, 29 Taf. 9, 113).
9. Galoşpetreu, Bihor, Romania: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb.3, 9; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 94 f., Pl. 145, 12; Chidioşan/ Soroceanu 1995, 171 Abb. 2, 2).
10. Guşteriţa, Sibiu, Romania: hoard II (Kacso 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 10; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 95 ff. Taf. 156, 8).
11. Nyíracsád, Szabolcs-Szatmár, Hungary: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42; Mozsolics 1973, 159 f. Taf. 57, B 1; Kemenczei 1988, 29 Taf. 110, 114).
12. Panticeu, Cluj, Romania: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 12; Mozsolics 1973, 168 f. Taf. 45, B 4; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 65 ff. Pl. 58, 14).
13. Pápa, Veszprém, Hungary: individual find? (Kacsó 1993, 42; Kemenczei 1988, 29 Taf. 10, 115).
14. Rozavlea, Maramures, Romania: hoard III (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 13-14; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 67 f. Pl. 62, 12-13; Kacsó 2004, Pl. 71, 1).
15. Uioara des Sus, Alba, Romania: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42 Abb. 3, 15-18; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 114 ff. Pl. 244, 11.14).
16. Vilivitány, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Hungary: hoard (Kacsó 1993, 42; Kemenczei 1988, 29 Taf. 10, 116).

To this type of sword count according to the form of a blade also following examples:

17. Nižnij Bistrij, Chust, Ukraine: hoard (Kacsó 2000, 210 Fig. 2, 3; Kobal´ 2000, 90 Taf. 72, B 1).

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[42] Only one single fragment of an animal protome, labeled as from the site of Culciu Mare/ Nagykolcs, is on exhibit in the museum in Satu Mare.

[43] On a largeness of territories of cultural groups in the bronze age see Harding 1997.

[44] Cp. Soroceanu 1995, 35 ff.

P.S. My thanks for the translation to Emily Schalk (Berlin), for the graphic support to Ivan Litsuk (St. Peterburg) and Matija Črešnar (Ljubljana).

18. Lapuş, Maramures, Romania: tumuligraves (Kacsó 2001, Abb. 26, H 2-2. H 4-2; Kacso 2004, Pl. 54, 2). Fig. 1.

Violin-bow fibula of type Cernat according to Bader 1983

1. Cernat, Covasna, Romania: hoard and settlement finds (Bader 1983, 16, Taf. 1, 3-4; 55, B 1). Fig. 8, 1.
2. Ghirişu Român, Cluj, Romania: hoard (Bader 1983, 16, Taf. 1, 5-6; Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 145, Pl. 359, 8). Fig. 8, 2.
3. Lapuş, Maramureş, Romania: tumulusgrave (Kacsó 2001, Abb. 28, 4). Here Fig. 2.
4. Lisičniki, Tarnopol, Ukraine: settlement find (Maleev 1988, 111 Fig. 11,3). Fig. 8, 4.
5. Noovoselka-Kostjukovaja, Ukraine: grave ? (Meljukova 1958, Fig. 5,5; Anohin et al. 1986, 39, Fig. 8,7).
6. Porumbenii Mari, Harghita, Romania: settlement find (Marta 2003, 353 ff., Taf. A 1). Fig. 8, 3.

Most probably count to this type of fibulae also an example from:

7. Rateşu, Vaslui, Romania: settlement find (Bader 1983, 8, Taf. 1, 1 A).

Badeni type fibulae according to Bader 1983

8. Augustin, Braşov, Romania: settlement or individual finds (Costea/ Bauman 2001, 1 ff. Pl. 1, 1-2). Fig. 8, 6.
9. Bădeni, Cluj, Romania: hoard or individual find (Bader 1983, 21, Taf. 2, 8). Fig. 8, 5.
10. Zoločiv, Ukraine: grave (Krušel´nic´ka1976, 57, Fig. 22, 21; Krušel´nic´ka 1985, 76, Fig. 23, 11; Anohin e tal. 1986, 41, Fig. 9, 16).

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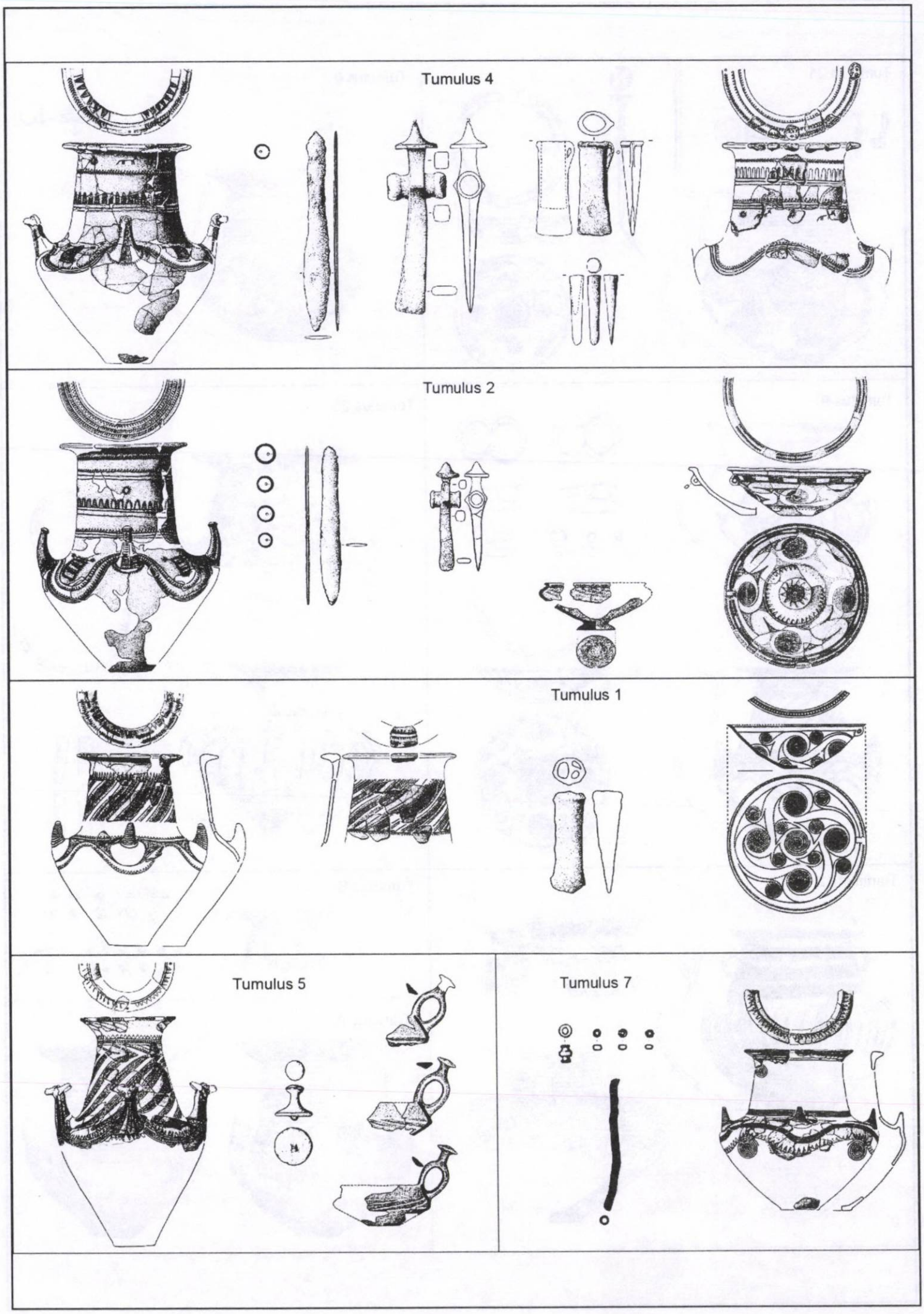


Fig. 1. Lapuş, selected grave-finds from tumuli 4, 2, 1, 5 and 7 (according to Kacsó 2001 a; see also Teržan 2005, 242 ff., Fig. 3).

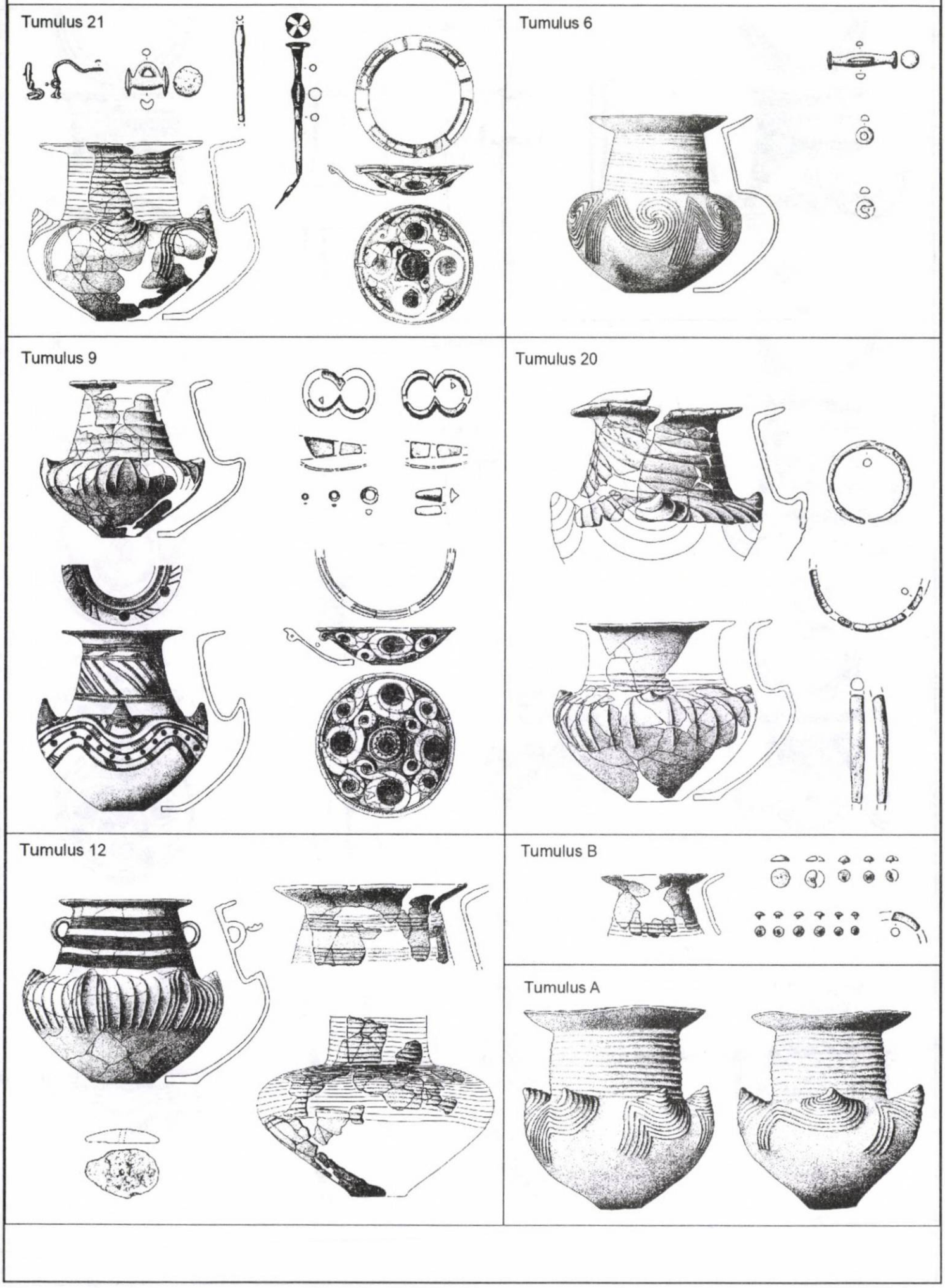


Fig. 2. Lapuş, selected grave-finds from tumuli 21, 6, 9, 20, 12, B nad A (according to Kacsó 2001 a; see also Teržan 2005, 242 ff., Fig. 4).

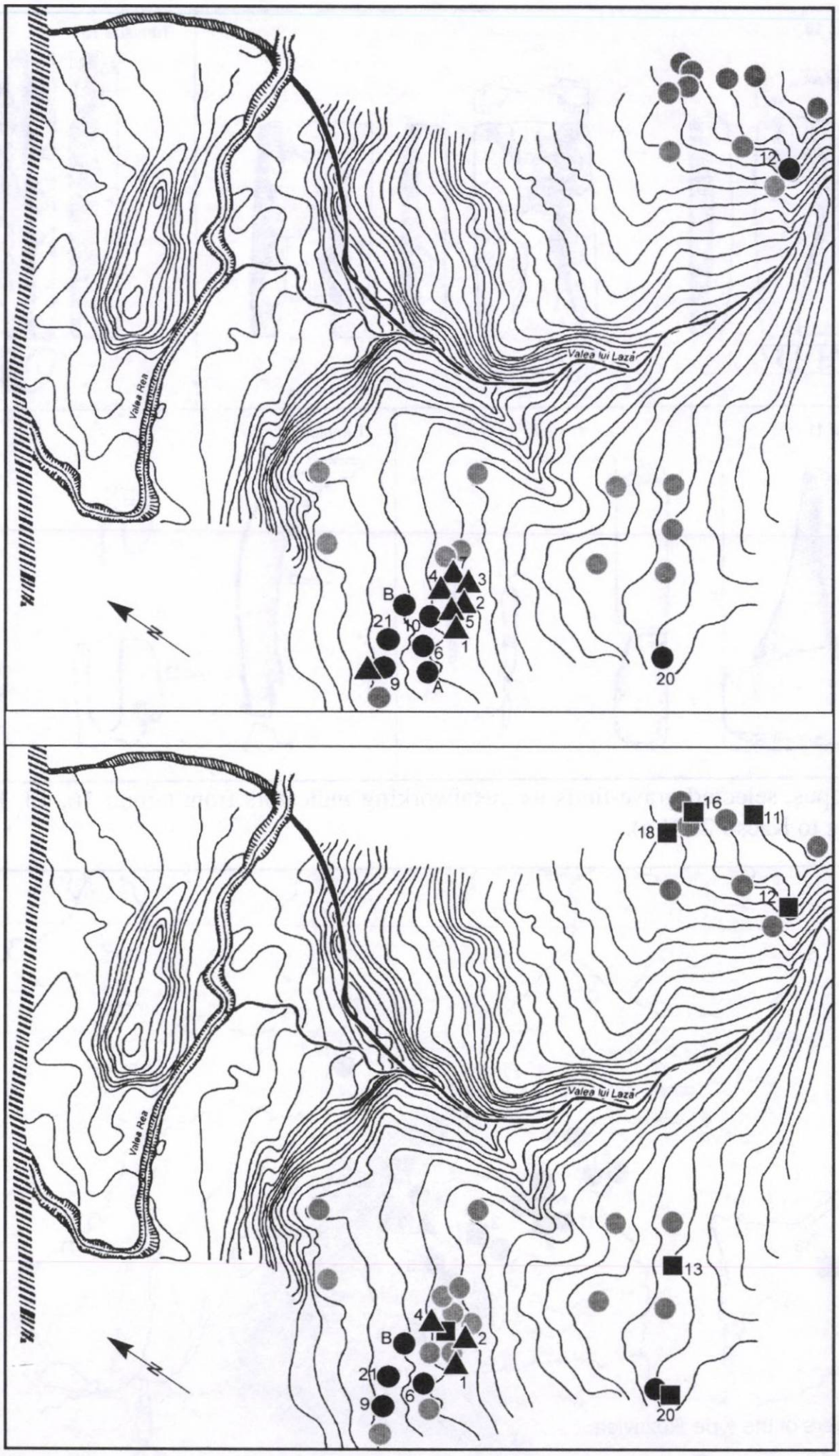


Fig. 3 Lapuş, plan of tumulus-cemetery:

Above–distribution of pottery decorated with various motifs in incised or chip-carved (*Kerbschnitt*) techinques ▲, of chanelled pottery ● and of unexcavated barrows or barrows without such kind of ceramics ○.

Below–distribution of weapons ▲, of jewellery ●, of metalworking indicators■ and of anexcavated barrows or barrows without such kind of finds ○ (after Teržan 2005).

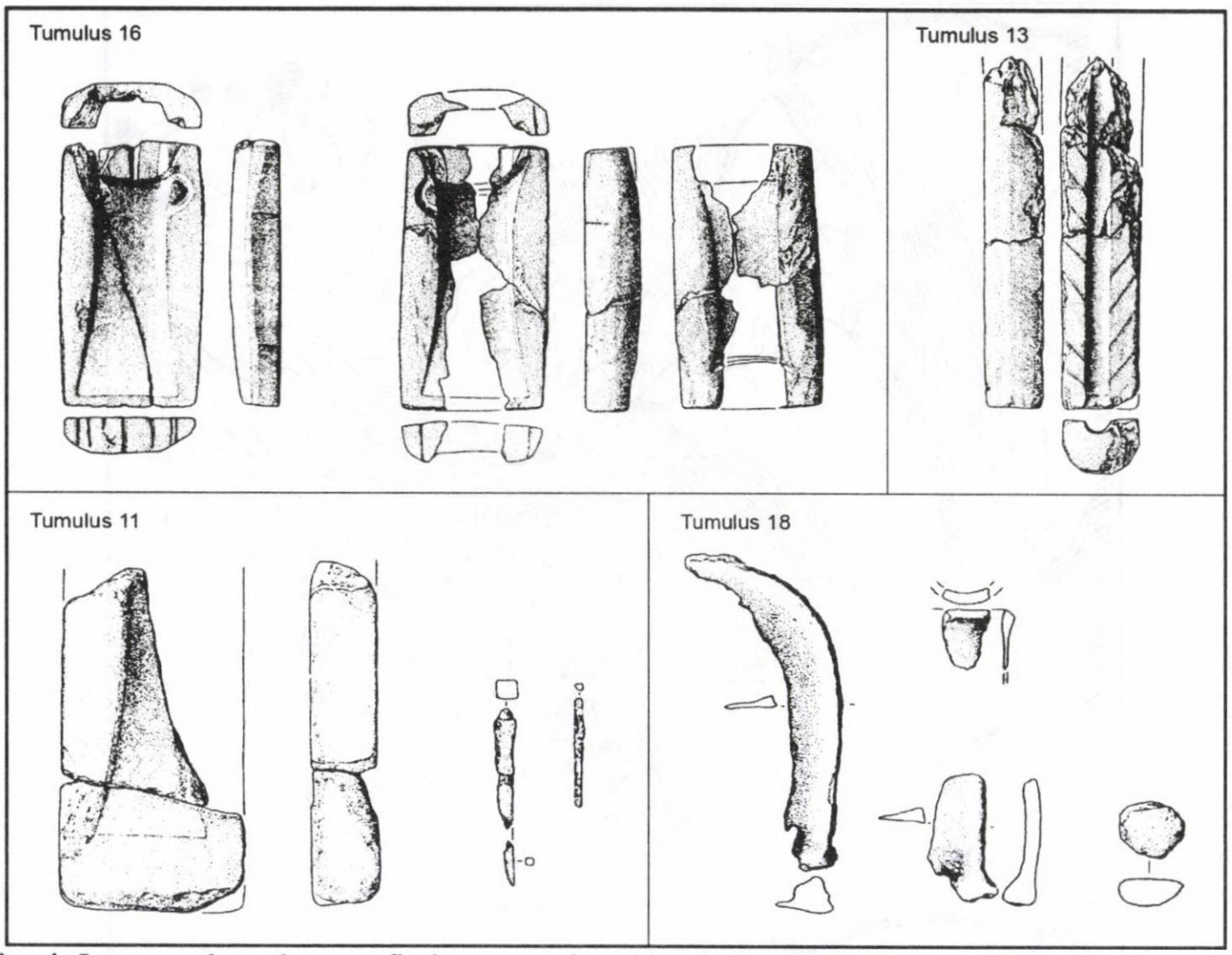


Fig. 4. Lapuş, selected grave-finds as metalworking indicators from tumuli 16, 13, 11 and 18 (according to Kacsó 2001 a).

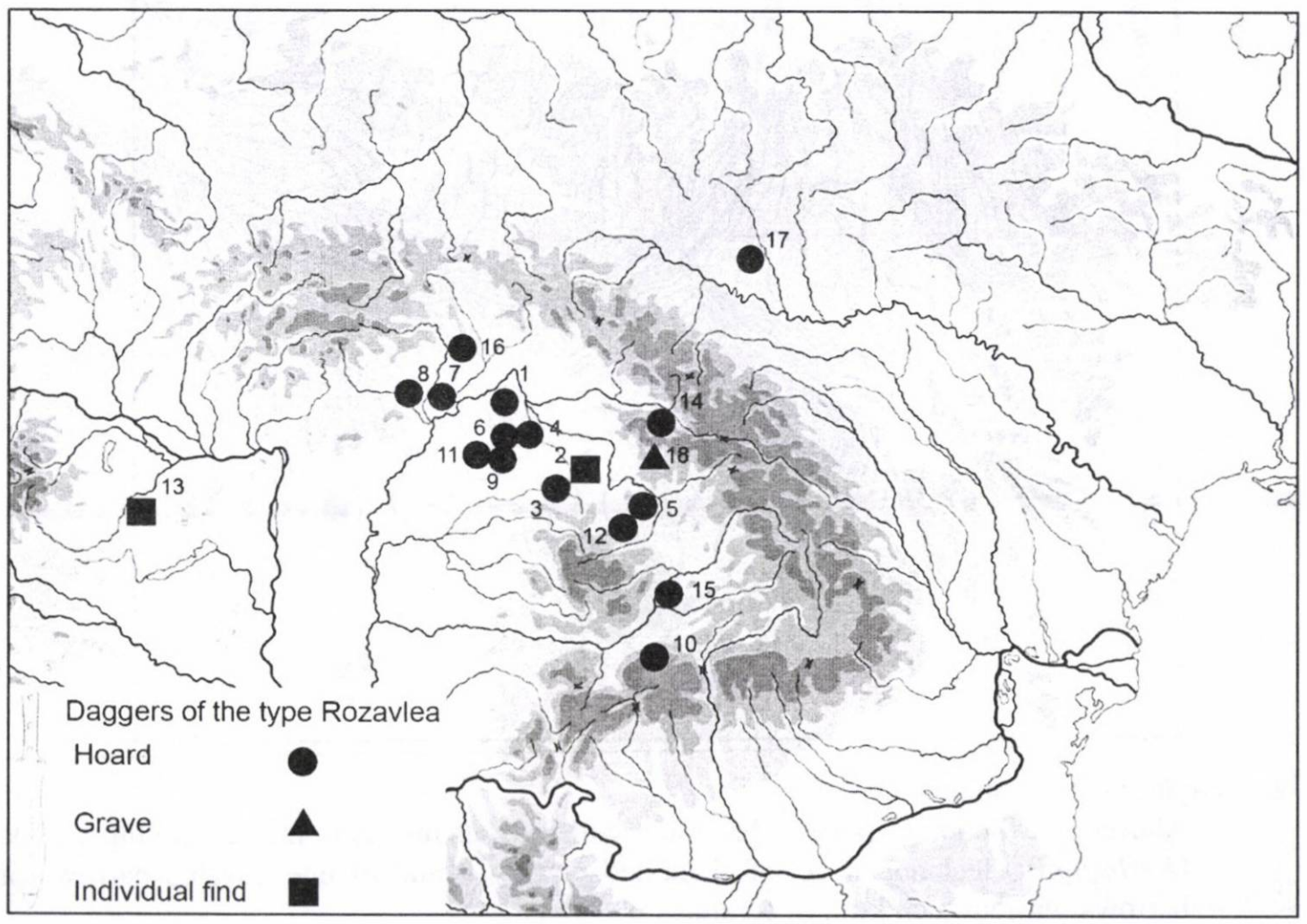


Fig. 5 Distribution map of daggers of type Rozavlea (hoard ●, indvidual find ■, grave ▲, see list 1).

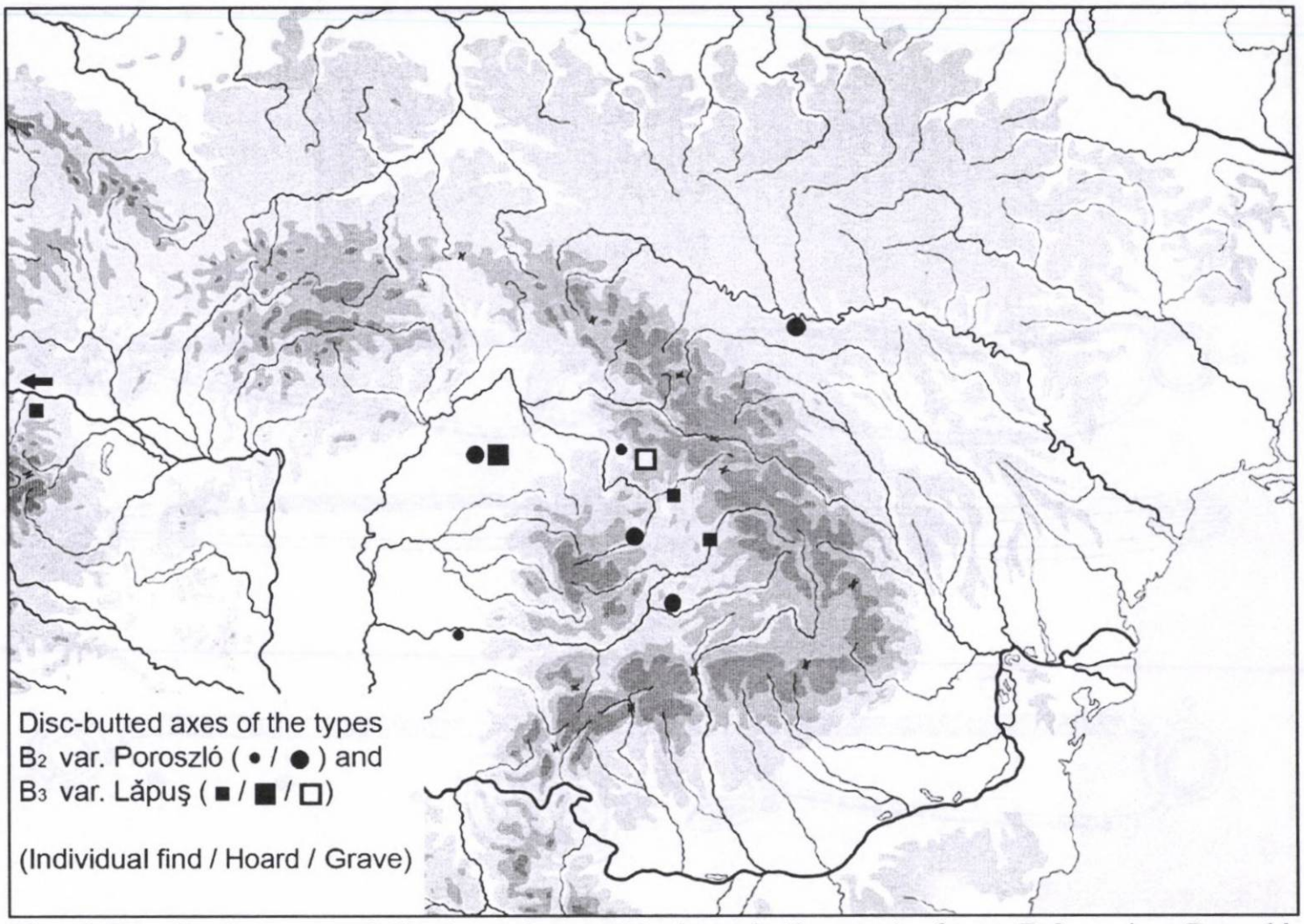


Fig. 6. Distribution map of disc-butted axes (*Nackenscheibenäxte*) of type B 2, variant Porozló (• 9) and type B 3, variant Lapuş (■) (according to Vulpe 1970, 79 ff. N. 338-342).

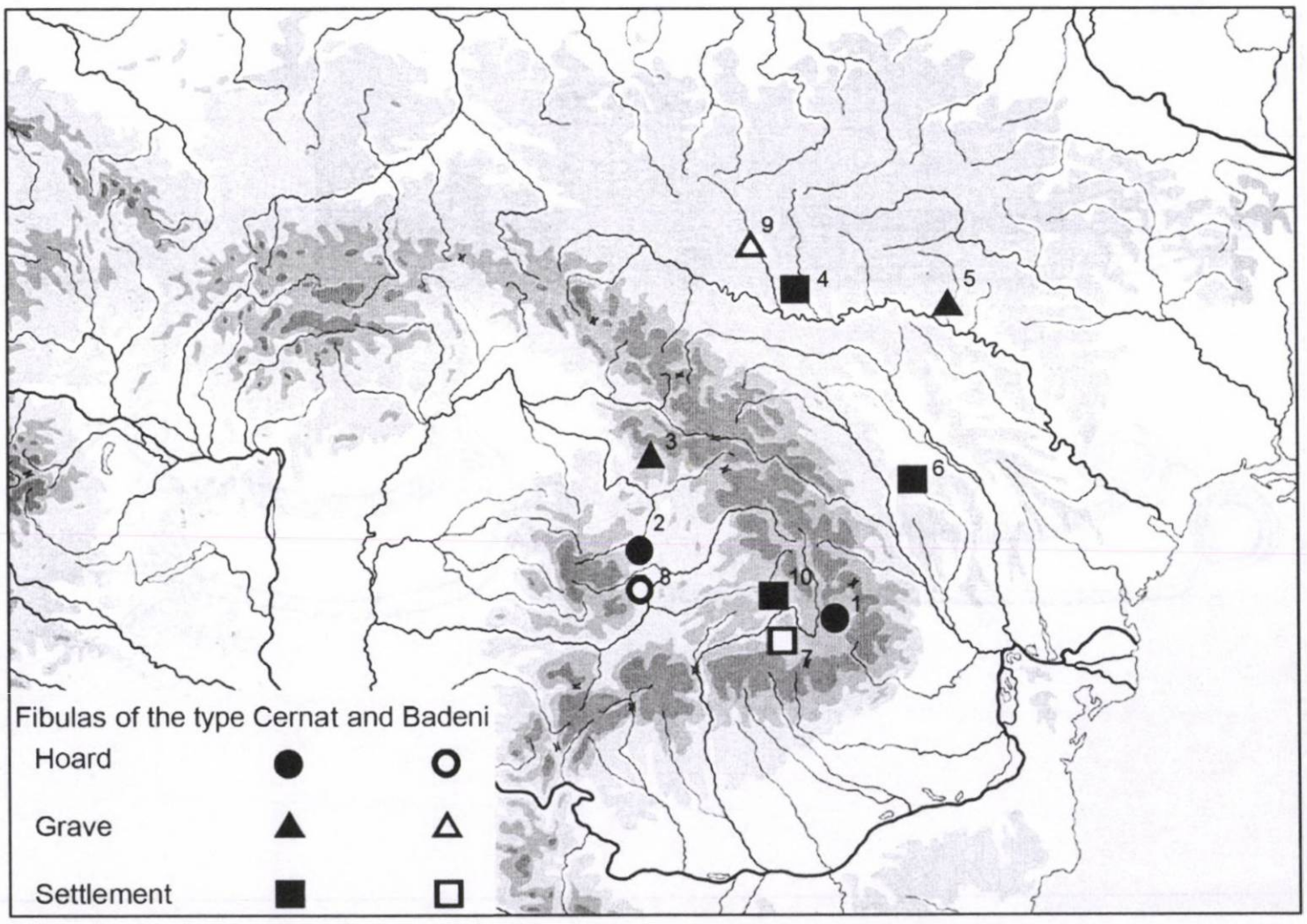
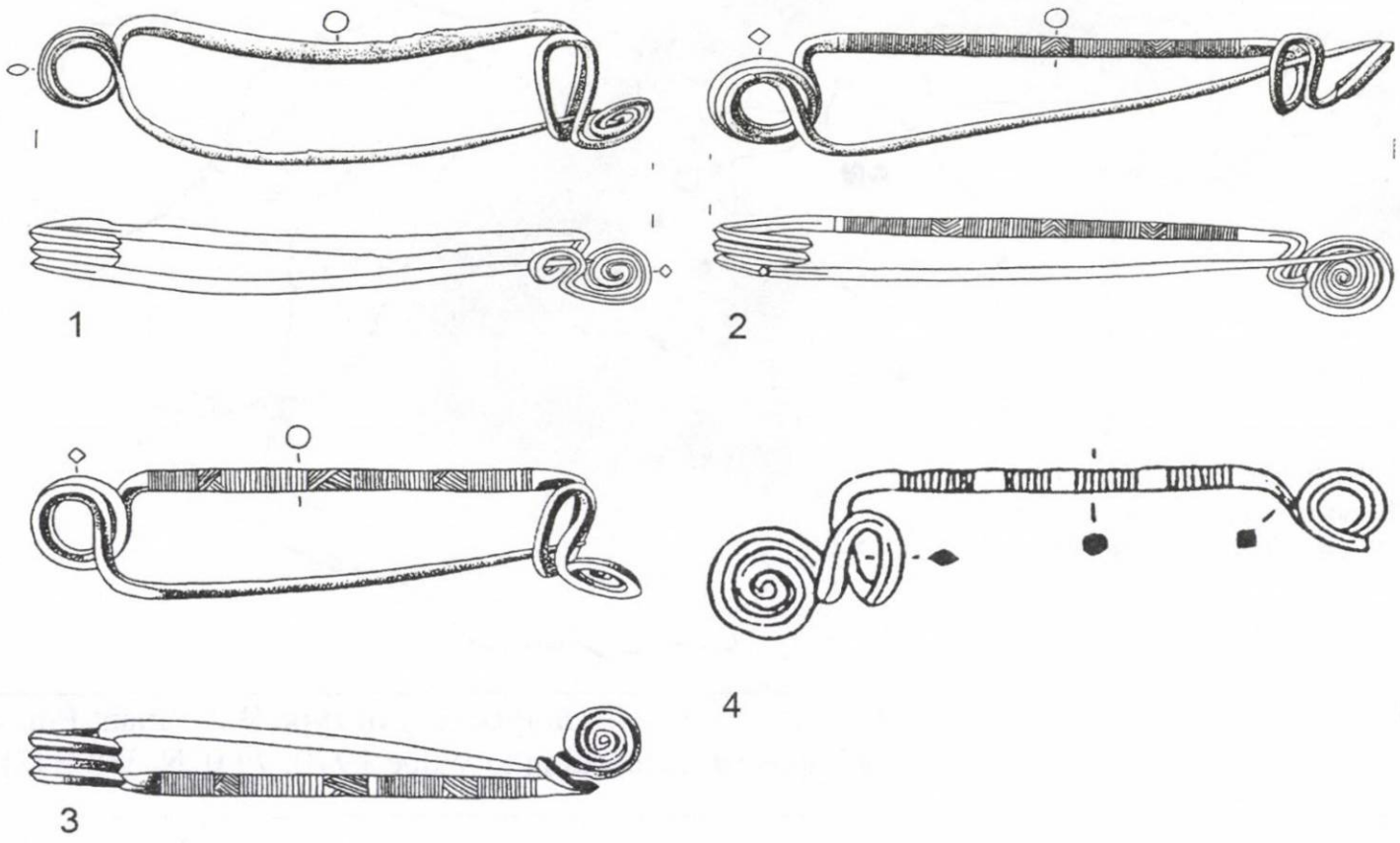


Fig. 8. Fibulae of Cernat type: 1 Cernat, 2 Ghirişu Român, 3 Porumbenii Mari, 4 Lisičniki; fibulae of Badeni type: 5 Badeni, 6 Augustin (see list 2).

Type Cernat



Type Bădeni

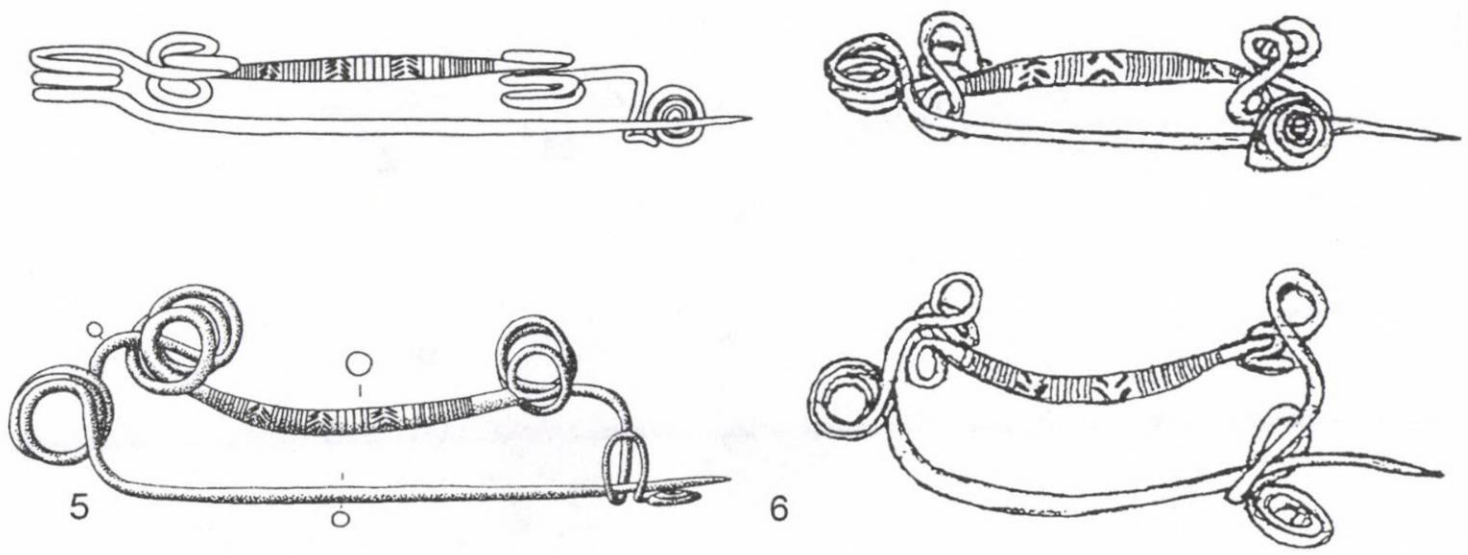


Fig. 7 Distribution map of fibulae of Cernat type (● hoard, ▲ grave, ■ settlement) and Badeni type (○ hoard, □ settlement).

A Bronze Age ritual structure on the edge of the Carpathian Basin.

Carola Metzner-Nebelsick – Carol Kacsó – Louis D. Nebelsick

This article is a revised version of a talk which was given at the Satu Mare conference in 2008 and includes the latest results from our excavation campaigns in the summers of 2008 and 2009 on the site in Lăpuş-Podanc, tumulus 26.

The Lăpuş barrow necropolis is on of the best known Bronze Age sites in the entire Carpathian basin and adjacent areas. It lies in the isolated Lăpuş river basin embedded in the western foothills of the ore bearing Carpathian Mountains in the district of Maramureş, north western Romania. This cemetery is the largest surviving Late Bronze Age barrow necropolis in the eastern Carpathian region discovered to date, which – as the excavations in the course of our project revealed – also comprises a new type of monument, which will be introduced in this article.

Due to a long history of traditional non-erosive patterns of land use, which involve small plots used as pasture, hay meadows or gardens, but also the sheer size of many of the barrows, this important Bronze Age cemetery remained essentially preserved up until the middle of the 20th century. Thankfully, the ongoing degradation of the site, that has resulted from the introduction of mechanized agricultural technology since the end of second world war, has been accompanied by extensive surveys and rescue excavations, so that although many of the monuments have been levelled or destroyed, it is possible to reconstruct the original structure of the cemetery with a large degree of confidence.

János Szendrei from the Hungarian National Museum in Budapest who first mentioned the site in 1890[1] investigated 13 barrows which he claims had already been destroyed to a large extent, in a sector of the north western part of the Lăpuş necropolis called Podul hortarului. The first survey in 1967[2] reviled 70 barrows clustered into various groups covering a 1,5 square kilometre segment of tiered river terraces on the southern edge of the upper Lăpuş-Basin. A recently discovered isolated barrow group on the southern edge of the cemetery lies on the summit of a prominent hilltop hill (Mlaca) overlooking the necropolis (fig. 1). The arrangement of these massive up to 10 meter high barrows, which were heaped up with whitish loam or coated with a mantel of bleached river pebbles on prominent points of the articulated slope of the valley, must have been intended to make, and no doubt succeeded in making, a tremendous impression on contemporary visitors.

Sadly, almost no information was published from earliest excavations of the necropolis which were carried out by interested antiquarians like Szendrei during the late 19th century, and most of the finds which were made then are now lost[3]. Modern excavations were initiated in 1961 by Mirca Rusu, later under supervision of Ivan Ordentlich and have since 1967 been carried out under the leadership of Carol Kacsó from the County Museum of Maramureş for History and Archaeology (Muzeul Judeţean de Istorie şi Arheologie Maramureş) in Baia Mare leading to the investigation of 25 tumuli up to this day. The 26th barrow is currently being excavated in a joint project with the Institut für Vor- und frühgeschichtliche Archäologie und Provinzialrömische Archäologie der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität Munich and various other scientific partners[4].

One of the surprising results of these investigations was the astonishing degree of diversity of both the constructions and inventories encountered in these tumuli. Some were covered by sizable stone or loam mantles and others showed a highly complex sequence of interior features and structures including stone constructions, large pottery packings and

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[1] Szendrei 1890, 376 ff.; Roska 1942, 209, no. 23.– For further information see Kacsó 1975, 48 ff.; Kacsó 2001, 231 ff.

[2] Kacsó 2001, 253, fig. 3

[3] Unfortunately only a single sherd of channelled black-and-red-ware from these excavation survives in the MNM Budapest (inv. no. 102. 1890. 7).

[4] Prelimenary reports: Kacsó/Metzner-Nebelsick with contribution by L.D. Nebelsick 2009; Metzner-Nebelsick-Kacsó-Nebelsick 2010 and in print.

systematically distributed pit complexes. Moreover, in many cases no human remains could be recovered from the presumed burial mounds which instead contained among other finds large amounts of fragmented pottery, burnt daub from wall constructions and cremated animal bones. In those cases where remains of human cremations were recovered, both urned und un-urned strewn cremations were observed, which at times were found under the barrows together with remains of the pyre[5]. Of course this surprising diversity can in part be linked to the long use of this cemetery, which is suggested by the presence of two pottery styles in the inventories of the mounds[6].

Inceptive vessel sets are shaped and decorated in the manor of the region's Middle Bronze Age Suciu de Sus tradition[7]. Their rich decor includes bowls which are chip carved ("Kerbschnitt") with sophisticated spiral designs as well as large biconical vessels with elaborate incised decor including solar and zoomorphic motifs but also animal head appliqués. In the succeeding phase plainer channelled pottery prevails – often with a lustrous black surface on the outside and reddish colour in the inside – , which in contrast to the regionally delimited middle Bronze Age style pottery, is common to communities over large parts of the eastern Carpathian basin during the early Urnfield Period. While the forms and décor of this pottery in Lăpuş largely reflects the supra-regional pottery fashion, which scholarship refers to as the Gáva style[8], the huge pottery assemblages which are deposited in and under the Lăpuş tumuli also include unique forms such as great conical necked vessels with exuberant spiral channelling. These are just one component of a remarkably differentiated pottery assemblage which also includes delicate richly decorated fine ware cups and bowls, as well as coarse ware including large pots as well as portable pottery braziers (pyraunoi). It is highly probable that these pottery assemblages which involve many thousands of sherds are rather the remains of ritual feasting than classical grave goods. Metal finds from the barrows include weapons such as bronze shaft hole axes, daggers and rarely sickles but also bronze toggles, with comparisons in HaA1-hoard finds of the area like Ungureni II[9], which can be connected with horse gear. Costume accessories include pins and a fibula[10] but also other bronze as well as golden jewellery types. Conspicuous members of these tumulus assemblages include artefacts that are very rare in late Bronze Age graves such as clay wheel models and stone casting moulds. One of the most important finds from the necropolis is an iron socketed axe (fig. 2). Since conventional cross dating places the use of this cemetery in the 13th-12th century BC, this axe ranks as one of the earliest iron artefacts in Europe.

Since 2007 research in this cemetery has been carried out in the framework of an international project lead by the Muzeul Judeţean de Istorie şi Arheologie Baia Mare and the Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität in Munich as well as other institutions such as the Uniwersytet Kardynała Stefana Wyszyńskiego in Warsaw. Partners for the various scientific analyses in addition to the excavation itself come from the Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza in Poznań, Poland, the Universitatea Babeş-Bolyai in Cluj-Napoca, Romania, the

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[5] Kacsó 2001, 236 f.

[6] The most thorough analysis of the pottery is still Kacsó 1975.

[7] Bader 1976; Bader 1978; Bader 1979; Kacsó 1987; Kacsó 2004; Marta 2009, 35 ff.

[8] Gáva-type pottery was first defined by Amalia Moszolics (1957, 121) and the term was later applied and modified by various scholars. For further reading see Pankau 2004, 28 ff. This pottery "koine", as Claudia Pankau calls it, is part of the "channeled ware" complex which following Bernhard Hänsel (1976, 88 ff.), consistent of different regional styles and covers a longer chronological development. "Gáva" is also widely used as a cultural term. The nomenclature varies from "Gáva Culture" or Gáva-Holihrady culture (i.e. Kemenczei 1984, 58 ff.; László 1973; 1994, 48 ff.; Szabó 1996; Smirnova 1974; 1998; Furmánek/Veliačik/Vladár 1999, 103 ff.). In Romania Mircea Rusu introduced the terms Sîntana-Pecica-Lăpuş or Sîntana-Lăpuş-Gáva Culture (Rusu 1963, 181) to describe this phenomenon. Other Romanian scholars such as Marian Gumă (1993, 181 ff.) and Attila László refer to the Gáva Type or use the term Gáva-Holihrady cultural complex. The channelled ware of the Lăpuş site – phase Lăpuş II – belongs to an older sequence of the Gáva-cultural complex (see recently Marta 2009).

[9] Tumulus 6 and 21 (Kacsó 2001, 277 fig. 27; 278 fig. 28), for Ungureni II: Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, Taf. 273, 10; with better drawings and thorough analysis: Kacsó 2003; Biba Teržan (2005) addresses the toggles as parts of personal dress accessories; for their connection with horse gear also see: Metzner-Nebelsick 2005, 342 fig. 6; 328 ff.

[10] Kacsó 2001, 276–278 fig. 26–28; fibula from tumulus 21 (ibid. 278 fig. 24).

Bayerisches Landesamt für Denkmalpflege and the Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg, Germany [11]. The goal of this project is to summarize and publish the excavations and surveys carried out to date which have so far only been made available in the form of preliminary reports as well as to make a comprehensive map of the necropolis combining a modern geo-referenced plan of the surviving barrows, geophysical prospection with information from past surveys. Moreover a modern reference excavation was planned in order to help interpret information from older excavations but above all in order to obtain stratified material for radiometric dating.

In the summer of 2007 tumulus 26 was chosen for excavation not only because it lies in the centre of the cemetery but also because of an ongoing threat to the site posed by ploughing, agrarian road building and drainage works. The mound had a stretched oval 30 x 40 m diameter. It is however only 60cm high due to massive agrarian erosion which has removed much of the upper fill of the mound. The results of first year's test trenches in the centre of the mound made it clear that this barrow was not primarily a funeral monument but rather a complex structure involving phases of monumental constructions, mass deposition of pottery burning and mound building. Further excavation, but also the results of geomagnetic prospection by Łukasz Pospieszny und Mateusz Jaeger (Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza in Poznań) revealed a long rectangular inner feature as well as an extensive complex of features outside of the barrow.

Our decision to open larger significantly larger areas in the summer of 2009 enabled us to understand the structure and stratigraphy of the mound much more clearly. Our present state of knowledge allows us to reconstruct at least three major phases of construction of which at least the first two are characterized by monumental buildings erected one on top of the other and sharing the same orientation and lay out.

The first phase of activity on the site is still not fully understood as it its remains at the base of the mound are still largely unexcavated. Yet the general course of the development of this monument can be summarized here. It seems that both vegetation and humus were removed or perhaps better cleansed, before the building of the monument was begun on a flat spur overlooking the Lăpuş valley. First an oval mound made of whitish loam, the natural subsoil, was erected. This served as a platform on which a rectangular building was built. In 2007 a section of this wooden construction could be unearthed (fig. 3), it seems to have been part of a parallel sided building with exterior walls resting on sill beams with lateral entrances. This building was burnt, and judging from the lack of debris inside one may assume that this was done deliberately. It had a central hearth and as in the case of its successor it was accompanied by large flanking pottery packings outside the building made of masses of broken pottery which had accumulated before and perhaps during the destruction process.

After it was burnt this structure was covered with a thick multilayered packet of natural sub-soil, forming a second and larger oval mound, on which a new building as erected. This second major phase of construction is the best understood (fig. 4). A long rectangular 22 x 11 meter building occupies the largest part of the centre of the oval platform and is at least 22 m long. The outer walls of the structure rested on sill beams and were supported by additional posts. A line of deep posthole pits in the middle of the building can be interpreted as the support for the ridge beam of the building's pitched roof. Two extensions of the outer walls

[11] We further whish to thank the Deutschen Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) for their funding and support of the project; the county government of the Jud. of Maramureş for additional support; photography: Oliver Thiel (Free University Berlin) and Susanne Spindler (Free University Berlin); surveys and geophysics: Mateusz Jaeger (Adam-Mickiewicz University Poznań), Michael Kralisch (Humboldt University Berlin), Ken Massy (LMU Munich), Łukasz Pospieszny (Adam-Mickiewicz University Poznań), Simone Reuß (LMU Munich), Ulrich Schultz (now University of Bamberg); scientific analyses: Tomasz Goslar (^{14}C-Laboratory Poznań), Franz Herzig (wood analysis, Dendro-laboratory Thierhaupten, Bavarian Office for Monument Protection), William Shotyk (Isotope analysis of pollen, University of Heidelberg); we also wish to thank the trench supervisors: Roman Brejcha, Veronika Jell, Stefan Kaminski, Aleksandra Knapik, Grzegorz Łyszkowicz, Tobias Mörtz and Aleksandra Osińska as well as the Landesamt für Archäologie Sachsen for additional support in the starting phase of the project and all students and other contributors and last but not least the people of Lăpuş who excavated with us and supported our activities.

define a porch attached to the buildings front façade. In the centre of the building stood a hearth which shows signs of repeated refurbishing and a neighbouring shaft like pit which was re-cut at least once and filled with carbonized wood, burnt soil and large fragments of pottery vessels some with definite traces of re-firing. From the north-western edge of this pit complex a series of radio carbon dates was sampled which will be discussed below (fig. 5; 7).

This great hall was also destroyed by a fiery conflagration attested by carbonized beams and masses of daub, mainly deposited in pits, as well as burnt flooring. Sleeper beams which were preserved thanks to carbonisation show that it was built of oak. The fact that hardly any pottery or other artefacts were buried under the rubble, make it likely that this building, like its predecessor was emptied beforehand and that the site was later cleaned. Larger spots of reddish burnt loam inside the building area may indicate the places where the destructive fire was set.

After the destruction of the hall, mound building and construction activity resumed. This phase however is largely destroyed by modern ploughing (see also below).

Two stretches of multiphase thick packings of fragmented and partially burnt pottery and daub were deposited parallel to both sides of the central structure. In a project enhancing our excavations, this pottery is being analysed from an archaeometrical and ceramological standpoint by Corina Ionescu and Volker Höck (Babeş-Bolyai University Cluj-Napoca; Universität Salzburg). We hope not only to increase our knowledge about the primary manufacture of the pottery from barrow 26 but also learn about the re-firing processes which not only affected the pottery but may also be linked to fires which burned in the building's heart. Of course the question of the geographic origin of both clay and temper will be investigated as well as the possibility, suggested by an initial autopsy of the sherds, that stratigraphically older and younger pottery may have been made using a different mix of raw materials.

The further history of the mound comprises of at least one additional building phase which may include extensive stone cobbled structures encountered on the periphery of mound 26. The exact stratigraphic relationship of this large structure and the buildings in the centre of the mound are still not fully understood. While it could belong to the large hall in phase 2 it is more likely to have been built after its destruction, since no entrance situation could be discovered in the building so far. Furthermore the presence of stones packings in the badly eroded upper fills of the mound makes it likely that the impressive stone structures can be related to the last surviving construction phase of the mound.

These structures are made up of pebbles and boulders which must have been transported at least a kilometre from the stony bed of the Lăpuş River to the site of the barrow. The most substantial feature discovered so far is a cobbled linear structure approaching the mound from the east (fig. 6). It lay directly below the modern plough soil. A 13,5m long segment of this feature has been uncovered so far and it seems best described as a procession way or a specially denoted entrance feature. This path is accompanied on both sides by substantial stone packings which may be the foundations for formerly upstanding wooden structures which have not been preserved. Traces of an identical structure were found on the opposite, western, periphery of our excavations and in the drainage ditch on the western edge of the field road. They show that a linear cobbled feature extended further westwards. The two approaches leading towards the central part of the thus would have formed a symmetrical structure.

Among the main objectives of the project was the attempt to obtain material for ^{14}C-dates. Meanwhile a couple of dates from different contexts within the mound are available. Some will be published here for the first time. Their context unearthed in the first year of our excavation is a multiphase pit complex in the centre of the mound. Today we are able to evaluate the stratigraphical position of the samples. Originally our intention was to take a couple of samples in different stratigraphical positions in order to possibly date the sequence of various building phases more accurately. Unfortunately there is no bone material preserved

which could be subject to AMS dating, avoiding old-wood-effects of charcoal samplings. Since this methodological problem could not be eliminated, we had to take charcoal samples of burnt wood.

As shown in fig. 5 the multiphase pit complex cuts the red burnt layer marking the destruction of the megaron-like hall of building phase 2. The southern part of the pit complex may originally have belonged to a posthole pit for the roof supporting construction of the large hall, but was clearly enlarged or re-cut after its burning. It is also evident that this two-fold pit is covered by another layer containing – in this part – two posthole pits in which traces of burnt wood have been found.

The result of the dates can be interpreted in the following way. The samples P 38, P 36 come from the base of a substantial posthole pit for the construction of the large hall. P30 and P 31 come from its fill. The charcoal must therefore have gotten into the pit during the building of the hall or predate its erection. The sample P 23 clearly belongs to a construction phase of the mound post dating the large building's destruction, since it comes from a feature which cut the red burnt destruction layer. Sample P 14 was recovered from a feature related to the layer which covers this pit complex and is stratigraphically the youngest. These stratigraphic relationships are roughly reflected by the radiocarbon sequence despite the large intervals in the 2 sigma standard variation (95,4% probability) due to a flat calibration curve in this period (fig. 7).

Sample	Context	95,4% probability	55-68% probability
P14 (Poz-22788):	carbonised wood from the upper most cultural layer:	1380–1120 cal BC	P 14: 1310–1190 cal. BC (68,2%)
P23 (Poz-22795):	carbonised wood from a pit complex which cuts the destruction layer of the large hall building	1380–1120 cal BC	P 23: 1320–1200 cal BC (68,2%)
P30 (Poz-22794):	carbonised wood from the fill of the post hole pit	1630–1450 cal BC	P 30: 1610–1490 cal BC (68,2%)
P 31 (Poz-22786):	carbonised wood from the fill of the post hole pit	1540–1410 cal BC	P 31: 1515–1440 cal BC (68,2%)
P 36 (Poz-22800):	carbonised wood from the base of the post hole pit	1460–1290 cal BC	P 36: 1440–1370 cal BC (55,8%)
P 38 (Poz-22792):	carbonised wood from the base of the post hole pit	1420–1250 cal. BC	P 38: 1390–1290 cal. BC (67,1 %)

Summing up this shows a range between 3265 ± 35 BP and 3005 ± 30 BP[12]

Regarding the quality of the samples, clearly the danger of old-wood-effects can not be excluded which seems to be particularly the case for sample 30 and 31.

Surprisingly the dates are very high for an archaeological context which can be connected with channelled ware pottery. So far, except for a handful of chip decorated sherds, the majority of the thousands of pottery sherds from mound 26 belong to the channelled Lăpuş II-types (fig. 8). Furthermore the southern part of the pit complex was filled with a dense packing of vessel parts of Lăpuş II-type, among them sherds with a red inner and black outer surface. Traditionally channelled pottery/"kannelierte Keramik" also referred to as Gáva or Gáva-Lăpuş II-Typus has been parallelised with the HaA1 period and therefore has been dated within the 12th c. BC.[13] Although old-wood-effects can not be excluded, the intervals of the dates indicate the existence of channeled ware pottery in Lăpuş in the 13th c. BC if not earlier.

As a number of other recently published dates from the settlement of Grănişeşti in Transcarpathian Romania (see the contribution by Attila László in this volume) or different

[12] The samples were dated in the Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory by Tomasz Goslar using OxCal v3.10.

[13] i. e. Hänsel 1976, 88 f. chronological chart "Beilage"; Kacsó 1987, 75; Gumă 1993, 181 ff. chronological chart; Pare 1998, 422 Tab. with regard to the local literature.

sites in Hungary indicate[14], this reflects a general trend. If these dates can be obtained for short lived organic materials (single year plant remains, animal bones, etc.) as well, the chronological frame work of the Late Bronze Age in the Carpathian basin must be rearranged.

Interpretation

The origin of the huge amount of intentionally destroyed pottery, which ended up heaped on both edges of the mound in the first two construction phases or which was deposited in a deep pit in its centre, is probably best seen as the result of ostentatious feasting. Considering the location of mound 26 in the midst of a cemetery it is highly likely that such feasting may have taken place in the framework of funerals, memorial ceremonies and/or ancestor worship[15].

Of course it is difficult to be specific about the nature of these festivities before a comprehensive analysis of the pottery has taken place and the monument has been excavated fully, but the presence of large coarse ware storage vessels and portable hearths make it likely that the festivities included the preparation of food and beverages. Furthermore the presence of a highly differentiated set of decorated fine wares point to sophisticated ceremonies of their distribution and consumption. The destruction of the vessels and their selected deposition seems to have been an integral part of these ceremonies preventing their re-use in profane contexts.

In some cases the pottery shows evidence of sometimes severe re-firing and some calcinated animal bones[16] indicate meat being subjected to temperatures that make sacrificial fire a more likely agent than cooking. The complexity and religious nature of the rituals which were carried out in and around this monumental building is highlighted by the find of a small bronze hoard, made up of fire scathed jewellery and what may be a horse gear disk which lay together with different sorts of grain and a grape pip on the edge of a pottery packing.

The combination of the attributes of the central structure of phase 2: rectangular layout, porch façade and central hearth, is also found in the contemporary megaron structures which are the main halls and architectural foci of the Mycenaean palaces[17]. However although it is attractive to see the conception of this funerary monument as a reflection of the representative architecture of Mycenaean civilisation there are important differences. The Lăpuş hall, for instance, was a pitched roofed wooden building, built by using local technology while Mycenaean megara have stone foundations and mud brick walls and in contrast to the Lăpuş structure clearly defined frontal entrances.

The functional context is also a major difference. Megara are an integral part of the iconography of power in the context of palatial governance[18]. The fact that the Lăpuş structure lies embedded in a contemporary necropolis as well as the condition and find circumstances of the artefacts deposited in and around it, make a ritual function for his structure highly likely[19]. However the social organisation of the community which erected the buildings and mounds remains still largely obscure so that we can only assume that the hall may have functioned as the focal point of a highly structured society.

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[14] Ilon 2005 for a BzD/HaA1 settlement site of Németbánya in western Hungary with dates between roughly between 3050–2990 cal BP or 1423–1024 cal BC (2σ confedence); although there seems to be a larger variation of the dates from Németbánya, similar intervals as in Lăpuş could be observed. Recent excavations in in the salt mine of Figa near Dej in Transsilvania and in the fortified settlement Cornești have produced comparable dates between 3100 and 3000 cal BP (we thank Anthony Harding for the information).

[15] The structure in tumulus 26 represents a new type of monument to which tumulus 17 excavated by Kacsó, and discussed in his doctoral dissertation (Kacsó 1981) can be added. Motzoi-Chicideanu (1999–2001, 228 Abb. 21) with reference to Kacsó's information, counted Lăpuş tumulus 17 among his selection of Bronze Age cult places.

[16] We thank Joris Peters, LMU München for the information.

[17] For a comprehensive account see Alexander Mazarakis Ainian 2008, 129 ff. fig. p. 131.

[18] For megara see Kjell Werner 1993; concerning contacts with the Mycenaean world and the eastern Carpathian Basin and adjacent areas see Reinhard Jung 2005 with additional references.

[19] That the building did not serve a domestic function is supported by evidence from the contemporary settlement of Petea-Csengersima, recently published by Liviu Marta (2009, fig 2), in which a dense cluster of pits shows a totally different lay out.

As it was discussed above the ^{14}C samples from contexts assigned to the later construction phases of the mound are concentrated in the 13th century BC. This is not only significant for understanding the absolute chronological development of this mound but also has consequences for the wider understanding of the chronological sequence of pottery styles in the Carpathian Basin, as channelled pottery which is characteristic for this phase is traditionally dated to the 12th century (see above).

Cleary similar rituals were being celebrated in the earlier phase of the mound as during the later. Based on our results so far we think it is likely that we have recovered an at least threefold cyclical sequence of monumental construction, ritual use, and destruction probably involving possessions, feasting, incineration and mound building with in the context of funerary and/or memorial practices.

Whether the details of this model will stand the test of new results or not, it is clear that the results of the excavations carried out so far will have an impact on our understanding of ritual behaviour and status display in the later prehistory of south east Europe. This is the first time that monumental architecture has been discovered in a context which clearly transcends settlement or domestic usage outside the Mycenaean world[20].

Moreover it seems likely that despite their differing settings, Mycenaean megara lie in the heart of palaces, our example from Maramureş was built within a necropolis, there may have been a connection between these similar architectural forms. One could imagine that elites in Lăpuş were attempting to imitate the architecture of power and prestige from the civilized south and adapt it to their own ritual needs within the context of funerary ritual, ancestor or hero cults.

A further possible link to the Mediterranean world can be seen through obvious similarities between the Lăpuş structure and a monumental building which was erected ca. 300 years later in the first half of the 10th century BC, the early Iron Age, in Lefkandi on the Greek island Euboea. It may originally have functioned as a royal hall; however the burial of a cremated male and an inhumation of a richly equipped woman in its centre clearly lead to a transformation of this function to that of a "Heroon", a place of hero or ancestor worship in whose vicinity a cemetery was installed between 950 until 825 B.C.[21]. As in the case of Lăpuş the structure in Lefkandi was intentionally destroyed by fire and a mound was heaped on to it thereafter. This impressive building is 45 m by 10 meters in size and thus larger than the hall in tumulus 26. It has a rounded end in the west and like Lăpuş has a porch with two antes in front. In contrast to the Mycenean megara the Lefkandi "Heroon" had a pitched roof supported by a row of wooden posts, very much like Lăpuş. However in the case of Lefkandi Mycenaean traditions are shown by the use of mud brick on stone foundations. While the similarities between this Iron Age building and the much earlier Lăpuş structure are clear, the presence of burials in the confines of the Lefkandi building show that it had a more immediate relationship to the sphere of the dead as was the case in Lăpuş.

Future plans:

The goal of the future excavations in Lăpuş barrow 26 is to clarify the nature of all of the structures which are visible on a magnetic plan and to recover the lay out plan of the first phase of the central rectangular building. This will enable us to reconstruct what is so far a unique representative building of the late Bronze Age in central Europe. The excavation is being accompanied by extensive scientific analyses in the nearer and further surroundings of the Lăpuş-valley. One of the goals is a reconstruction of the vegetation history of the region by

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[20] The only comparison in the south east Euopean Bronze Age we know of is a building in the Otomani-settlement of Sălacea in the region of Crişana (Jud. Bihor) which Nicolae Chidoşian and Ivan Ordentlich (1975) considered to be a megaron. The authors quite rightly state that the building can not be regarded as a normal house but is more likely to be an edifice made for a special purpose. This is not the place to attempt a detailed comparison between the Sălacea edifice and the buildings which lie under mound 26 of Lăpuş however it is worth noting that the Salcea structure is much smaller

[21] Popham/Sackett/Themelis 1979; 1980; Lemos 2002; Mazarakis Ainian 2008a, 140 ff.

palynological analyses and in particular to answer the question why this isolated agriculturally unfavourable valley was chosen as the site of this extensive and important necropolis. Preliminary results of Michael Peter's (Working group for palaeobotany/vegetation history LMU Munich) investigations in peat bogs on the periphery of the Lăpuş basin suggest that the earliest significant settlement of the valley begins in the early Bronze Age, a period which so far lacks any archaeological traces. This result obviously raises the question whether, as is highly likely, both the valley's settlements and the foundation of this outstanding necropolis can be linked to the exploitation of the varied and bounteous mineral resources, including copper and gold, in the surrounding mountains. In order to answer this important question, which will affect our understanding of the dynamics of the Bronze Age in the Carpathian Basin as a whole, will be the subject of further geological, archaeometrical investigations and particularly the analyses of heavy metal contents in datable peat deposits as well as charcoal recovered from the site[22].

In conclusion we hope that our research in the Lăpuş necropolis will make a substantial contribution not only to the development of ritual and funerary ostentation at the beginning of the late Bronze Age but also will provide insights into the wider cultural and economic development of ancient Europe in the second half of the second millennium B.C.

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[22] This project part is currently undertaken by William Shotyk and his team from the Institute of geological sciences, University of Heidelberg.

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Fig. 1. Burial mound of the „Mlaca“ hilltop above the Lăpuş valley (photo Metzner-Nebelsick).

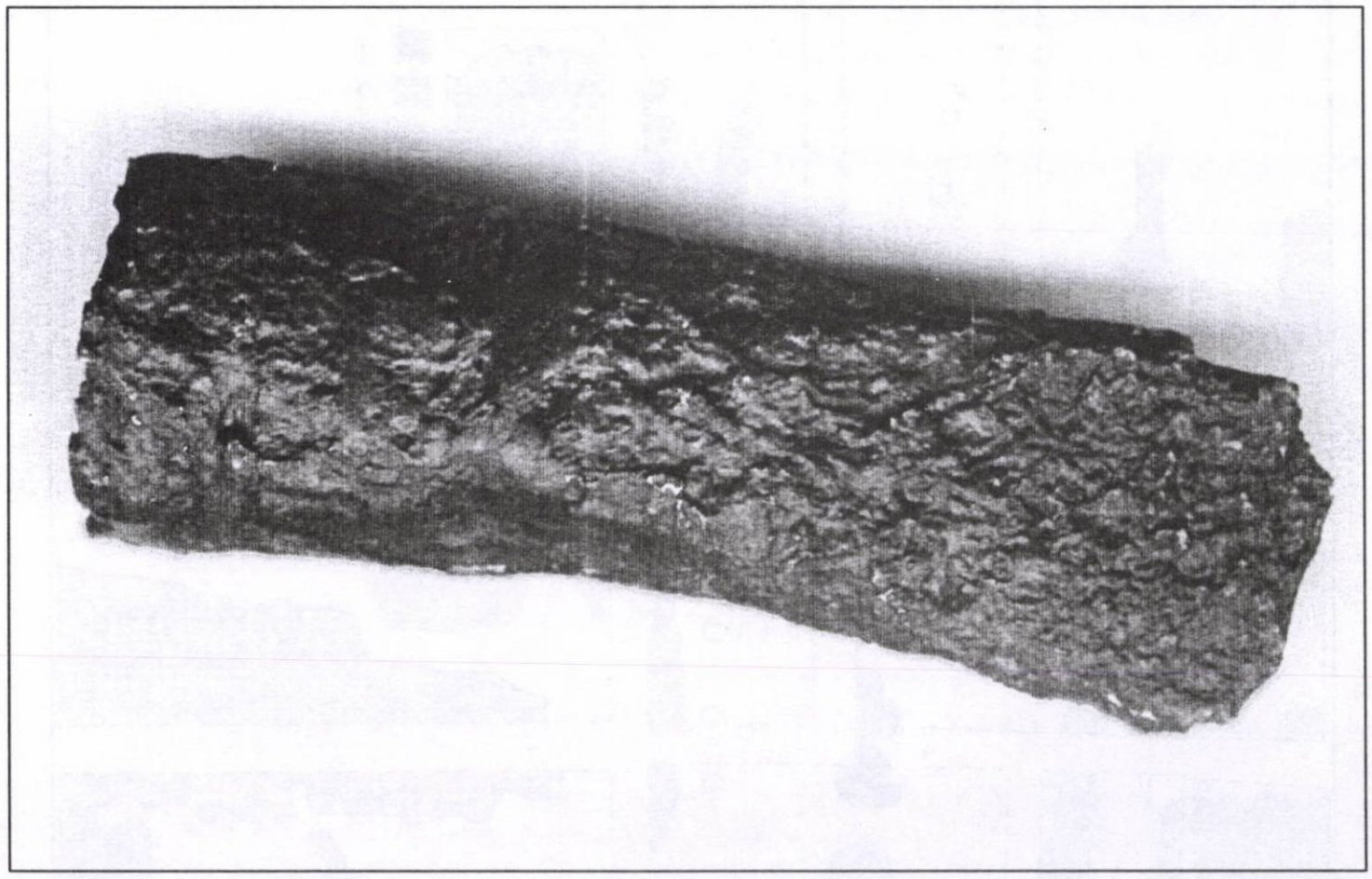

Fig. 2. Iron socketed axe from Lăpuş, barrow 1 (photo Muzeul de Istorie a României)

Fig. 3. Part of the wooden construction of the building in phase 1 (photo Spindler)

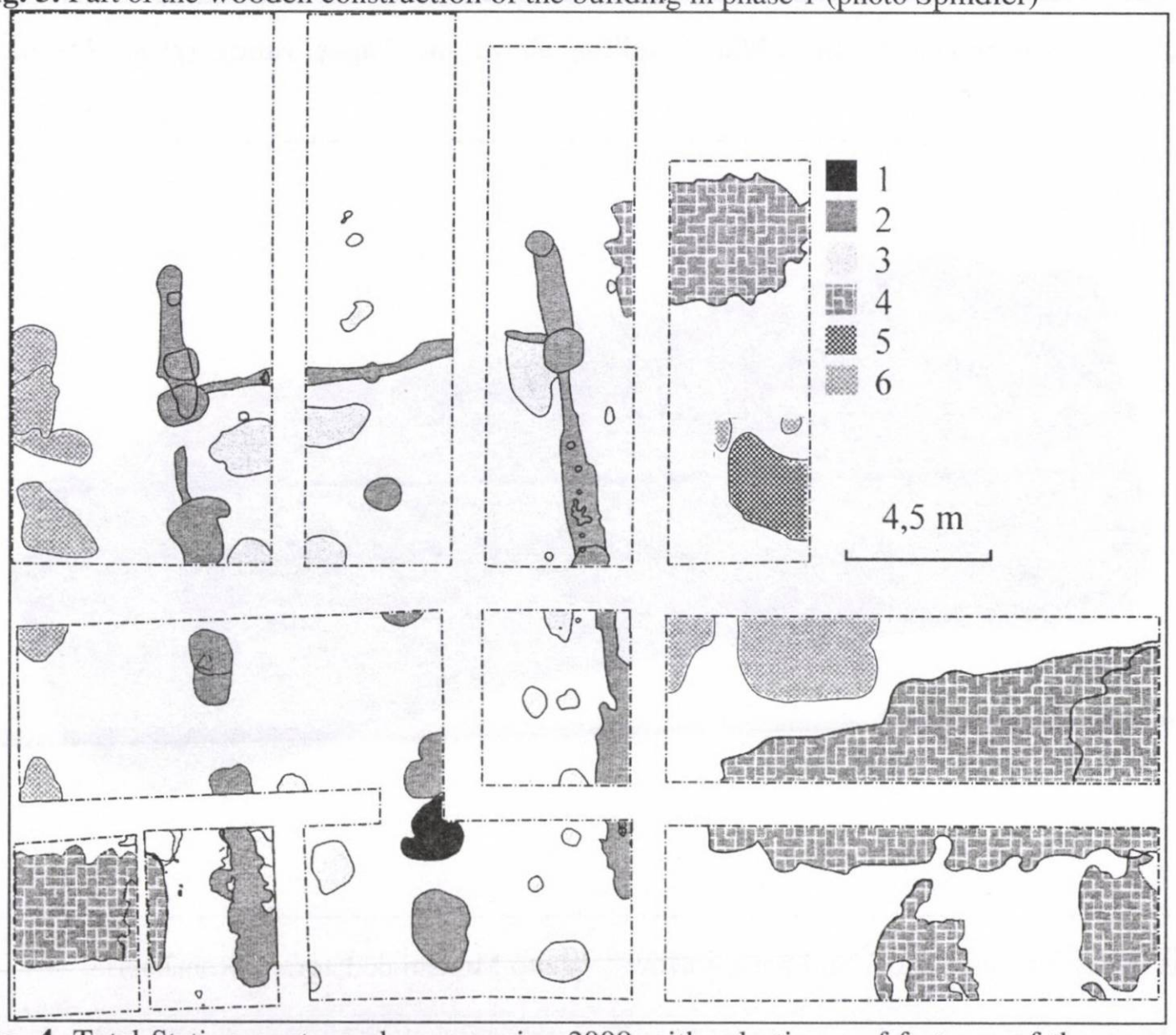

Fig. 4. Total Station contour plan campaign 2009 with selection a of features of the younger phases of tumulus 26: 1. hearth of the large hall; 2. foundations and postholes of the large hall; 3. other contemporary and later features; 4. stone and cobbled features; 5. thick pottery pavement; 6. depositions of pottery and other burnt remains (drawing Metzner-Nebelsick, Massy and Reuß).

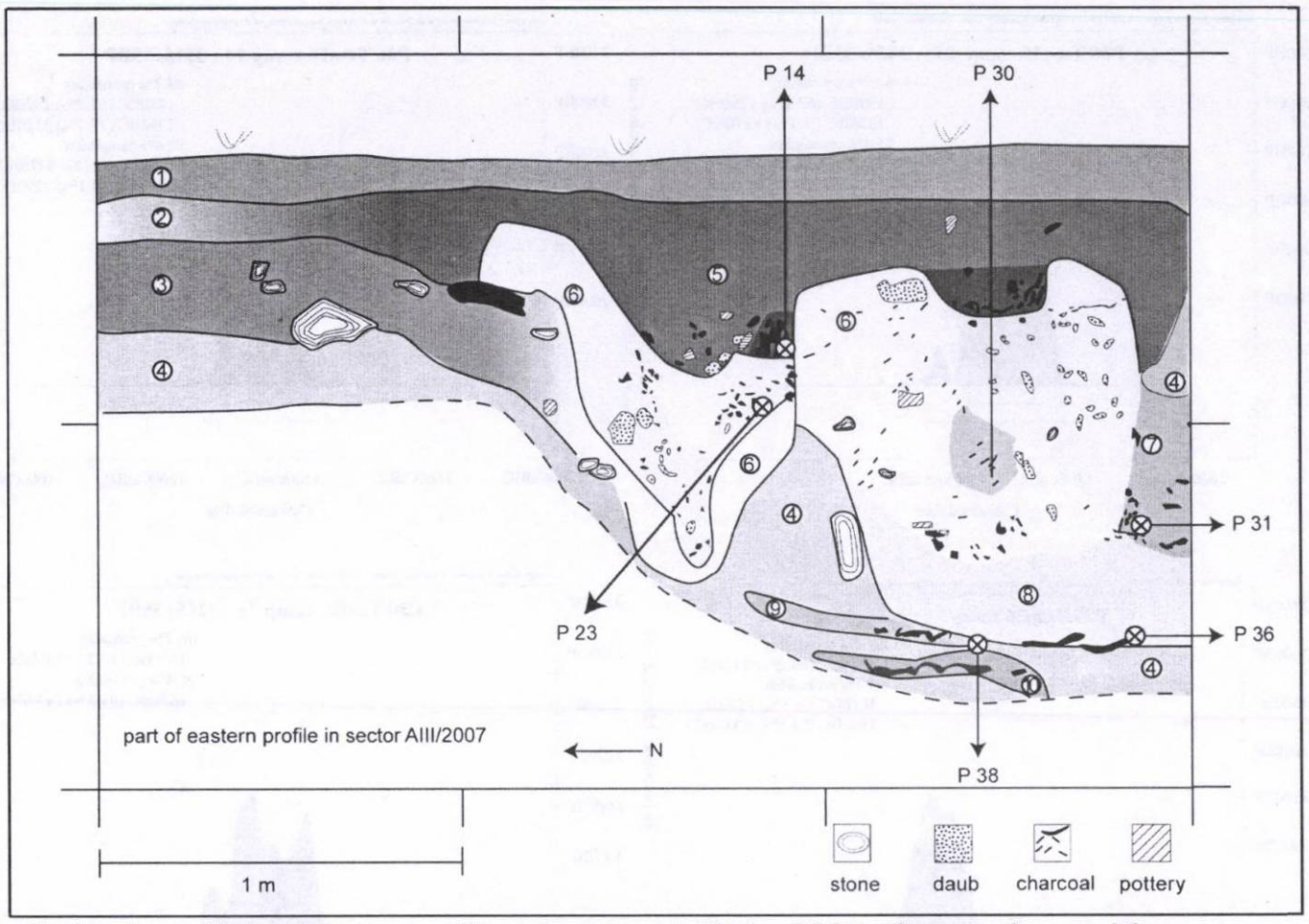

Fig. 5. Section of the eastern profile of sector A III in 2007; the numbers with a cross and a "P" mark the position of the radiocarbon samples, other numbers indicate different layers and fills (drawing Peisker after Osińska and Metzner-Nebelsick).

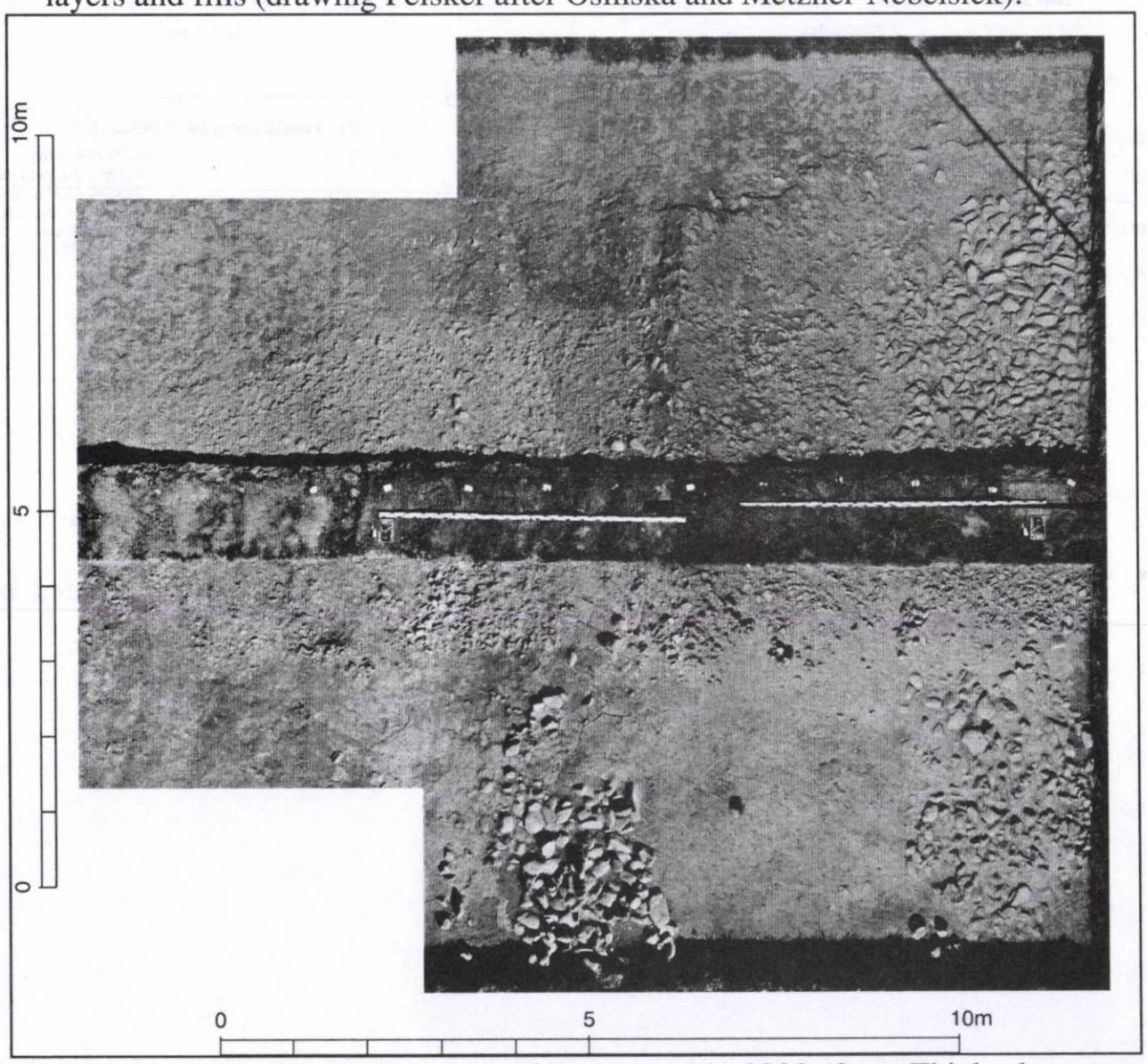

Fig. 6. Cobbled way leading to the centre of the mound in 2009 (fotos Thiel; photogrammetry Massy).

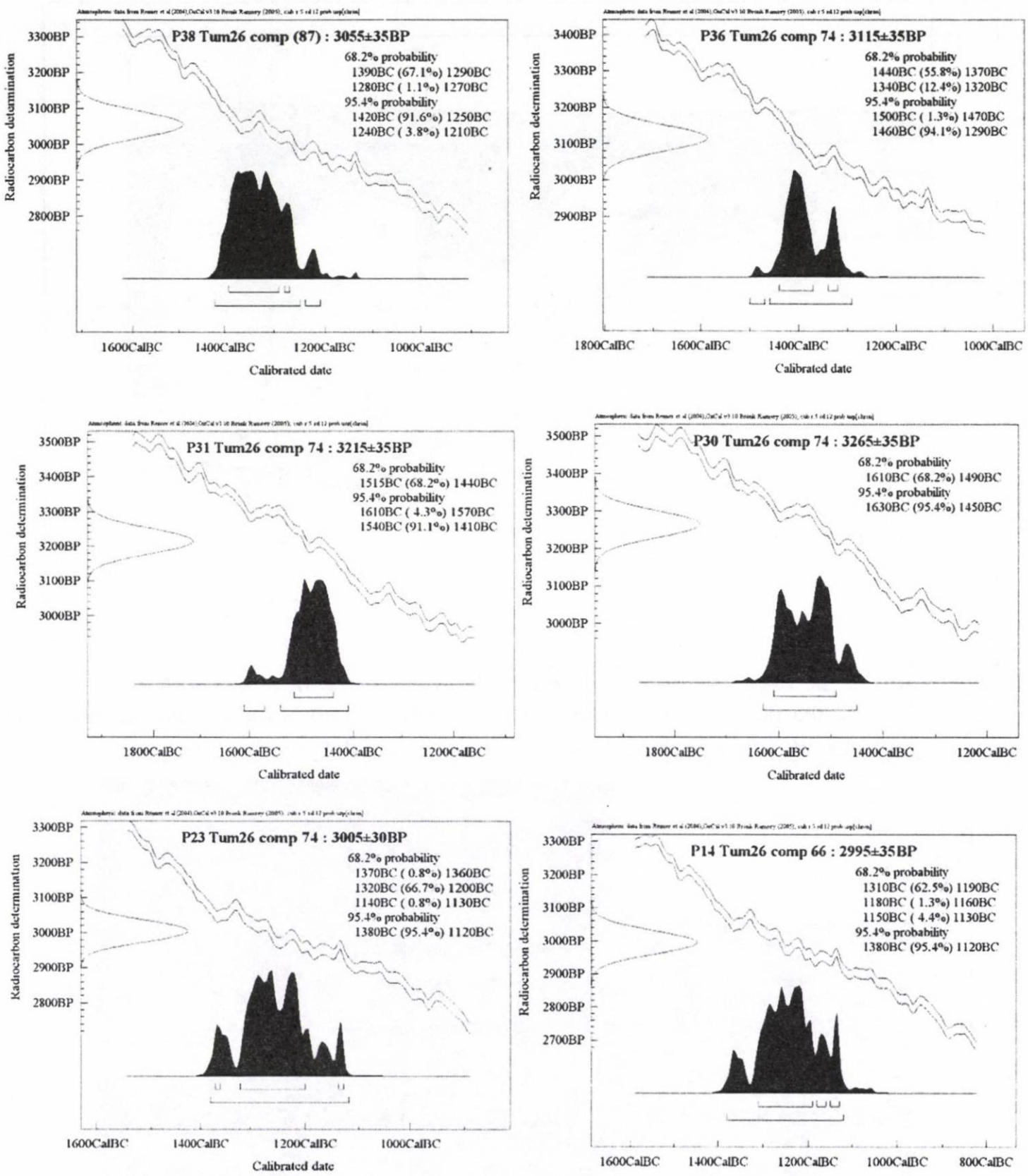

Fig. 7. ^{14}C-charts of samples from the pit complex in sector A III (fig. 5); dated by the Radiocarbon Laboratory Poznań.

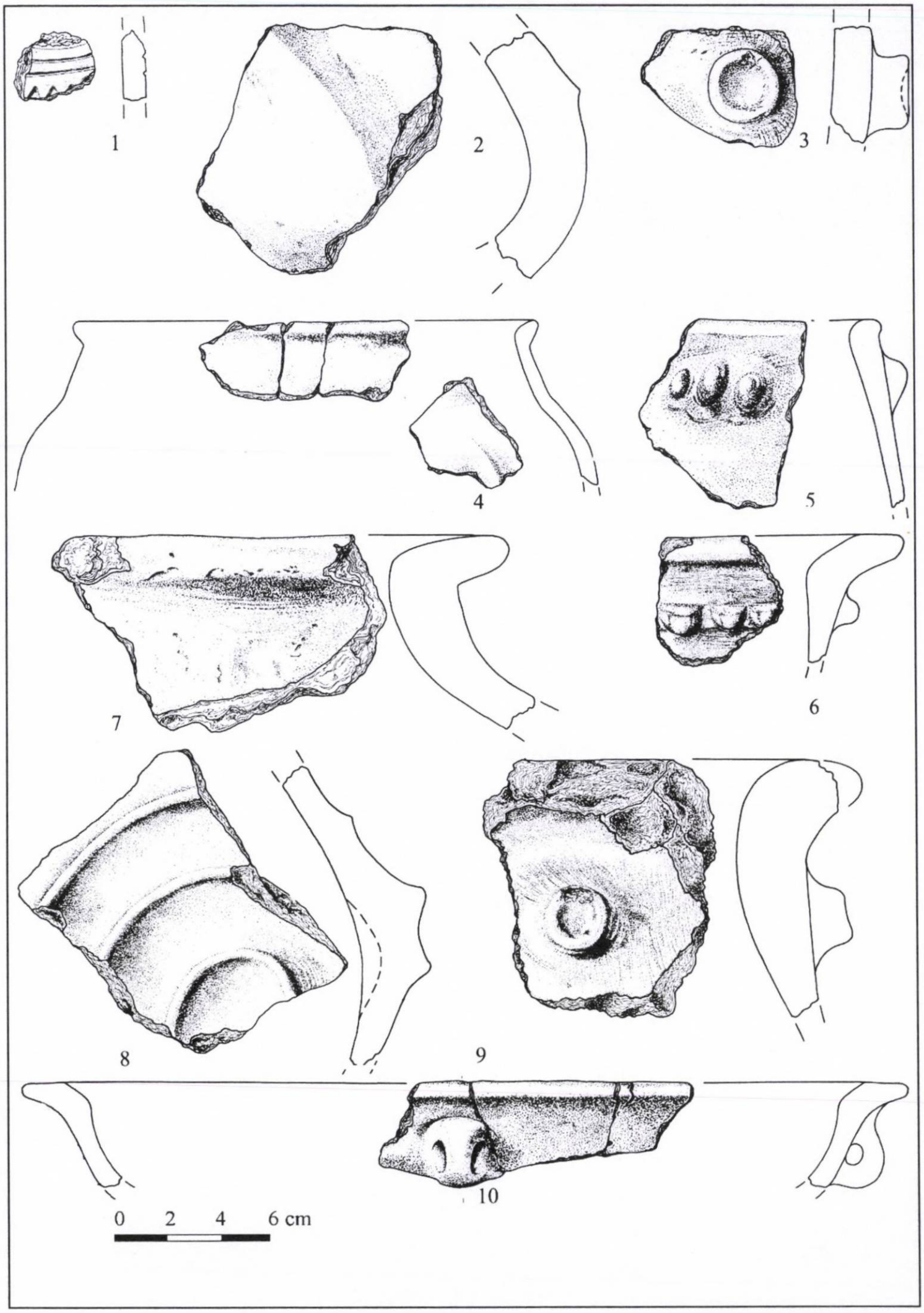

Fig. 8. Pottery from tumulus 26. Lăpuş Phase 1 pottery = 1: A1/compl. 1.2. Lăpuş Phase 2 pottery = 2: A1/compl. 3.3; 3: A1/compl. 14; 4: A1/compl. 33.5-6; 5: A1/compl. 34.10; 6: A1/compl. 56 (drawings Şomcutean; Köhler).

Aspects of the Late Bronze Age Cultural Evolution in Northwestern Romania (the Upper Barcău and Crasna Rivers)

Bejinariu Ioan

Key-words: north-west Romania, Late Bronze Age, pottery, cultural influences.

Late Bronze Age, covering roughly the second half of II-nd millennium BC represents in the eastern area of the Carpathian Basin, a time of accumulation and slow transformation, which began at the time of Tisa Plain Tell Civilisation disintegration and is finished at the time of channelled pottery spreading on large spaces in Hallstatt period.

Few words about geography, history of research and Late Bronze Age chronology of northwestern Romania.

In the physical-geographical landscape of north-western Romania, the upper courses of Barcău and Crasna rivers has a distinctive position. On the east and south sides the area is enclosed by Meseş and Şes Mountains, the upper basin of these two rivers makes up Şimleu Basin a contact zone between two major geographical units: the Transylvanian Plateau and the Upper Tisa region. Meseş Mountain can be exceeded to the east from Crasna valley through some secondary passes near of Buciumi and Meseşenii de Sus villages, but mainly "*Poarta Meseşeană*" (= *Meseş Gate*), which is a gorge carved by Ortelec river în the area of Moigrad (ancient *Porolissum*).

For a long time, the image of Late Bronze Age in northwestern Romania was based on interpretation of Otomani culture evolution in Crişana and the Sătmar Plain. I. Ordentlich interpretation was that Otomani culture has evolved until the emergence of Gáva culture[1]Opinions expressed by Ordentlich influenced to a certain extent other Romanian specialists[2]. This theory came into conflict with the results of research from northeastern Hungary, where Otomani culture settlements ends the habitation in Middle Bronze Age, and in the early Late Bronze Age, the area between Crasna and Barcău rivers is documented the Hajdúbagos group discoveries[3]In Romania, the first who question these long continuity of Otomani culture is I Németi. Publishing some of his archaeological discoveries from around Carei, the author talks about "*new local events ... (*which*) ... seems to exceed the chronological horizon of third fase of Otomani culture, being ... a link with great cultural group called Gáva-Holihrady ...* [4]The same author underline correctly that "Otomani IV", like it was defined[5] by T. Bader [6]doesn't reflect the synthesis process which led to the Gáva culture genesis. Németi noticed that elements of continuity from the Middle Bronze Age, although visible, are still less numerous than those new ones[7]. C. Kacso is using the term of Cehăluţ or Cehăluţ - Hajdúbagos group (Pişcolt-Cehăluţ at Németi) for most of the discoveries previous attributed to „Otomani IV" phase, documented archaeologically during a certain period in the early Late Bronze Age, between Crasna and Barcău rivers[8]. Also are maintained some more nuanced views, as expressed by N. Boroffka, which is based on the analysis of decorative elements support the idea of ceramics development during a later phase of Otomani culture, and its designation as a phase IV of Otomani culture or under another name, is ultimately a matter of terminology[9]. A synthetic view, of actuality, over the Cehăluţ - Hajdúbagos findings we owe to J. Németi).

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[1] Ordentilich 1970, 83-67

[2] Horedt 1967, 145-147; Chidioşan 1974, 166; Bader 1978, 62; Morintz 1978, 169,

[3] Kovács 1970, 27-44

[4] Németi 1978, 120-121

5 About „A Possible Otomani Iv Phase" Talks Since 1971 Al. Vulpe, Who Has Doubts About The Extension Of Otomani Iii After The Year 1200 Bc. Vulpe 1971, 307-308, Nt. 10-11.

6Bader 1978, 56-57, 62

[7] Németi 1978, 120-121; Németi 1981-1982, 46

[8] Kacsó 1987, 72; Kacsó 1990, 43-44; Kacsó 1995, 111-113; Kacsó 1997 85-110

[9] Boroffka 1999,124; Idem 2000

South of the area which is archaeological documented with Cehăluţ type materials, were identified materials which three decades ago were attributed to Igriţa cultural group[10],evolving in this area after the Otomani culture. As results from a repertory of monuments attributed to Igriţa group realized more than ten years ago, the definition of this cultural group is based on relatively few finds from excavations and especially on the basis of deposits, assumed religious (?) from caves, while data from the settlements are few and often uncertain [11]

A series of discoveries (pottery and metal artifacts) from northwestern Romania (Carei area) are published in 1990 by I. Németi characterized among other things, by *„... the presence of Cehăluţ cultural group traditional elements, and on the other side prominent apparition of shapes and ornamental motifs on vessels specific to channeled pottery horizon, found in culture Gáva–Holyhradi".* Based on similar materials reported in northeastern Hungary, these findings are considered organic related to formation of Gáva culture period (Gáva I) and dated in *„the second part of Br.D - beginning Ha A1"*[12]

From the lower Someş valley area, recently has been published the results of investigations from Petea (Satu Mare County, RO), respectively Csengersima (com. Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, HU) „*Vamă*" (= „*Customs*") point. It is large-scale excavations in a site with two horizons of habitation at end of Late Bronze[13] .Turning to the specific area that we defined at the beginning of this study, in 1980, C. Kacsó, considered that the end of Wietenberg culture in the Crasna valley is due to *"... penetration from the west of a mixture culture consisting in elements of late Otomani culture and Tumulus culture* ."[14]

Immediately after the occurrence of this study are investigated the Late Bronze Age settlements from Crasna[15], Cehei [16]and Doh[17]. On the basis of published material from Doh, we approach briefly the problem of Late Bronze Age ending, Late Bronze III stage [18]

Late Bronze Age period in Şimleu Basin fall, approximately, between the end of Wietenberg settlement development from Derşida „*Dealul lui Balota*[19]and the emergence of Erly Iron Age fortified settlement from Şimleu Silvaniei „*Observator*"[20]. This period was divided into three stages: Late Broze I–III [21]

The Şimleu Basin Case

In Şimleu Basin, Late Bronze Age finds, Cehăluţ-Hajdúbagos type are documented to date in more then 60 sites. Some aspects are still insufficiently clarified, like the time span of this group and especially the moment when the cultural evolution of this group is ended. Previously, in few studies that were addressed directly or tangential to the problems of Cehăluţ group, C. Kacsó make the assumption that the end of Cehăluţ and subsequently of Igriţa groups was determined by the advance of Gáva culture from Upper Tisa region to south-southeast[22] The same author placed the evolution of Cehăluţ group in the first's two stages of Late Bronze Age from Transylvania[23] It results indirectly that in the next stage (Late Bronze III) in Şimleu Basin area to have already documented discoveries of Gáva culture.

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[10] Emödi 1980, 229-273; Emödi 1997, 485-504; Chidioşan–Emödi 1982, 61-86; Chidioşan–Emödi 1983, 17-32; Kacsó 1990, 43; Kacsó 1995, 109-111
[11] Kacsó 1999, 101-106
[12] Németi 1990, 46-47
[13] Marta 2005, 78-84, Marta 2009
[14] Kacsó 1980, 41
[15] Lakó 1987, 77-81; Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, 163-219
[16] Lakó–Rad 1988, 85-89; Bejinariu–Lakó 1996, 11-33
[17] Bejinariu et. al 2004, 111-131
[18] Bejinariu et. al 2004, 117-118.
[19] Chidioşan 1980
[20] Sana 2006, 61-63
[21] Gogâltan 1999-2000, 44; Gogâltan 2001, 196-199; Gogâltan 2005, 376
[22] Kacsó 1995, 113; Kacsó 1997,89 ; Kacsó 1999, 104; Kacsó 2007, 53
[23] Kacsó 1997, 88; Kacsó 1999, 101

In the following we want to present two discoveries, one from the Barcău river valley, and the other from the Crasna river valley, which in our opinion, bring some important new data over the meaning and nature of cultural evolution during the third stage of the Late Bronze Age in the area between these two rivers.

Archaeological site from Zăuan *Bánffy-tag*" (Ip commune, Sălaj county, Pl. 1), was discovered in 1976, when from a complex (C 1 / 1976) visible in the side face of a trench, some pottery sherds and one fragment from a needle were collected (Pl.2/1-4). In this lateral section, the cultural level could be traced over a length of approx. 400 m. But we can not tell whether it is just about the Late Bronze Age level. Later in 1981 a survey was carried out in this place. Have been uncovered two areas, with a surface about 50 m^2. Archaeological site is placed in Barcău meadow, in floating area, on the right side of the river[24]. Perhaps, in prehistory, there was a top of a bank ridge, but after water-course regulation and after intensive agricultural operations, land feature has changed. Archaeological material that we illustrate it comes from complexes found in the areas studied in 1981. It is a building (?) which has not been fully uncovered. Construction has appreciable size (if we talk about a single building) and measured only in the areas studied, over 42 m^2.

A line of three post holes, which has an alignment approximately south-north appears to bound a possible subdivision. A fire hearth diameter of about 1,50 m was unearthed inside it. In the perimeter of the building were partially founded three other pits (G 2, G 4-5) of which just two had a relatively significant inventory.

The pottery[25] from that building (L1/1981) and from those pits is uniform in all respects. Most vessels were well polished, outer surface with metallic appearance. In composition were used crushed sherds and fine sand. Most are dark colors and among the fragments found appear a few with double color, black-brown outside, brick-red and yellow respectively, from the inside.

We observe at the pottery from Zăuan „*Bánffytag*" that from Cehăluţ type decoration in just in one case it was found the knob surrounded by semicircular channels (Pl.9/2). On a cup fragment appear an similar ornament, made it of three narrow channels grooves at the lower part of cup handle (Pl. 9/1).

In comparison, at the Suplacu de Barcău "*Lapiş*" settlement, regarded as one of the latest site of Cehăluţ group[26]semicircular channels around knobs are well represented[27], and arcade incisions appear on one of vessel from a cremation grave [28]

At Suplacu de Barcău appears also one piece of short foot jug[29], very common form throughout the Cehăluţ - Hajdúbagos group pottery in north-vest Romania.

Among the ceramic material saved in 1976 but also among the material researched and discovered in the fall 1981 was found some double colored pottery fragments. Note in this regard a fragment of a bowl decorated with wide oblique channels (Pl.2/4) but also one fragment of a biconical shape urn, with flattened rim, decorated on neck with winding fine channels (Pl.3/6). The same double color aspect has the hemispherical bowl with flaring and wide rim, decorated with wide oblique channels (rather facets) with the edges in relief, and in interior decorated with a "star" ornament made of three fine grooves (Pl.5/5). Finally it is also the pot fragment, probably of a biconical shape vessel, decorated on the the lower half with vertical grooves, rarely arranged (Pl.5/3).

Some fragments are from vessels of probably biconical shape body and widened rim (Pl.4/4; 6/5). Similar forms have appeared in the Late Bronze Age complexes from

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[24] Lakó 1983, 91-92, Nr. 91 B

[25] Just A Small Part Of Ceramic Inventory From The Zăuan Bánffytag Appeared In A Study Published In 2001. Unfortunately, For Reasons Beyond Our Control, Reproduction Of The Material Was Not Consistent With Plates Given By Us (Bejinariu 2001, 170-172, Pl. IV-VI).

[26] Kacsó 1990, 43

[27] Ignat 1984, Pl. I/1,V/4, VII/2

[28] Ignat 1984, Pl. XI/1[28]

[29] Ignat 1984, Pl. IX/1

Crasna[30], Suplacu de Barcău [31]both from western Romania and Nyírlugos from eastern Hungary[32] etc. Also, among other materials from Zăuan we note the ceramic fragments belonging to storage vessel, with large body, often with two handles under the rim (Pl. 2/3; 7/4). Note also some fragments from an portable oven-vessel (Pl. 7/3). Both are common forms, appearing in different Bronze Age cultural environments of the eastern half of the Carpathian Basin, as common as are occurrences of medium-sized vessels, with relatively straight or slightly sloping walls with four conical buttons or notched edges arranged under the rim (Pl. 4/2).

Along of coarse and semi-fine pottery, where these more voluminous vessels fits, must mention the presence of a large number of fragments of vessels made of fine quality paste, well homogenized, often polished surface with metallic appearance. To the second category belongs not only bicolor ceramics species presented above, but fragments coming from bowls and cups. Depending on the shape of the vessel mouth, we can talk about three types of bowls. A number of fragments belong to bowls having the rim shaped in four elongated lobes (Pl.7/2; 8/3; 9/5-6), under which occurs in some cases small handles or conical buttons. In the ceramic repertory of Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos group, bowls / dishes with lobed rim are not unusual, but the variant with elongated lobes appear in Banat area, like at Susani[33] and Timişoara "*Pădurea verde*"[34]. An fragment of this kind, decorated as for the ornaments from Susani with a "*star*" on the inside, comes from the settlement of Suplacu de Barcău „*Lapiş*"[35]. North of Sălaj area, bowls having the rim shaped in elongated lobes are rare occurrences (Carei –*Ferma I.A.S,* Petea / Csengersima - *Vamă*) and are attributed to early Gáva phase[36]. Their presence is made on behalf of the influences received from more southerly areas, Crişana and Banat.

Calotiforme bowls with curved edge inwards are represented by four fragments (Pl.4/1; 5/7; 6/2; 8/4). One of these has small conical buttons under the rim. Bowls/dishes with curved edge inwards becoming basic forms of Gáva pottery repertoire, appear in the Late Bronze Age in different cultural manifestations, but in different proportions[37]

The last category groups the bowls with the calotiforme or truncated cone shape, but with elongated rim a more or less widened (Pl.5/4-6; 6/4). The same shape we found also in the Suciu de Sus–Lăpuş ceramic repertory[38]. Pottery analysis from Late Bronze Age settlement from Petea–Csengersima show that this type, in an identical or similar form is perpetuate during housing of Lăpuş II-Gáva I phase[39]. From Susani tumulus[40] comes a piece with a body profile like one of Zăuan bowls (Pl.5/5) having in common also, the "star-like" ornament in interior.

The cups appear in two main variants. Most of these have lower half well rounded and the neck highlighted (Pl.3/1; 5/2; 9/1, 3-4) are decorated with conical protuberances arranged at the maximum of circumference, and in one case with fine semicircular channels. This variant is especially characteristic to the Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos group findings[41]. One fragment comes from a low pot, with a very oblique shape of the lower side, and upper half bounded by a „careen" well outlined (Pl. 3/5). The origin of this variant must be found in the Upper Tisa area, in the late Suciu de Sus culture, to become, as suggested by the situation from

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[30] Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, 161-162, Fig. 20/1-3
[31] Ignat 1984, Pl. III/4-5
[32] Nagy 2005, Pl. II-III/1-2
[33] Stratan–Vulpe 1976, 48, Pl. 5/218, 15/128-130
[34] Miclea–Florescu 1980, Nr. 478
[35] Ignat 1984, Pl.VI/7
[36] Németi 1990, 28-29 Fig. 13/3; Marta 2009, 71, Pl. 5/2
[37] Kacsó 1997, Pl. II/1/4; Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, 165, Pl. 26/1, 29/1; Chidioşan–Emödi 1983, Fig. 4/5, 5/1-3; Gumă 1995, Pl. III/9-10, VII/5/7; Nagy 2005, Pl. VI/4/7
[38] Bader 1978, Pl. LII/1; Kacsó 1981, Pl. 22-25
[39] Marta 2009, Pl. 7/7, 8/5,7, 9/2, Etc.
[40] Stratan–Vulpe 1997 Pl. 5/217
[41] Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, 166, Fig. 24b/4, 27/1; Nagy 2005, Pl.V/2,7,8; Bejinariu et. al 2008, Pl. Ix/3,5

Petea-Csengersima[42], more common in the corresponding period of Lăpuş II–Gáva I habitation[43]. We note in this context, few cups of this type among the vessels coming from the upper layer of Cehăluţ settlement from Crasna "Csereoldál"[44].

In association with the ceramic material described above, in the investigated area from Zăuan were discovered fragments of clay pyramid weights (Pl.3/2; 7/1, etc.). Metal inventory is composed by two ordinary pieces of bronze: an needle pin from the complex investigated in 1976, and one bronze pin "with ear" (Pl.4/3) coming from excavations of 1981.

Archaeological site from Pericei "Keller-tag" (com. Pericei, j. Sălaj, Pl. 1) was discovered on 1984[45]. Some archaeological complexes belonging to Late Bronze Age were founded in the excavations from 1999–2001, but unfortunately, with few significant ceramic materials in it. Subsequently metal objects founded in some of the investigated pits were published[46]. Representative archaeological material presented in this paper came from preventive archaeological excavations carried out in 2004.

The trench (S1/2004 = 521 x 2 m) that cross the site from east to west has allowed to find a continuous layer of archaeological deposits from the Late Bronze Age, on about 200 m length. The thickness of this layer is difficult to establish, because the top of the deposits has been affected by agricultural work. The fact is that under plough level it is a layer of sediment from the Late Bronze Age with a maximum thickness of 0,25 - 0,30 m. In this layer could not be seized evidence of the existence of successive sequences of habitation. Thickness and consistency of Late Bronze Age deposits suggests a long-term habitation, fact underlined by the observation that not all complexes of this period start at the same level of delineation. In this stratum were uncovered 35 archaeological complexes of Late Bronze Age: buildings remains, pits, hearths[47]. Due to preventive character of the archaeological research carried out in 2004 are few complexes fully uncovered. Inventory consists of pottery and other clay objects (pyramidal weights), bronze fragments, sandstones fragments (including a fragment of a mould) and river stones, bones, etc.

Like the pottery from Zăuan, clear Cehăluţ type ceramic is poorly represented. We mention a fragment of a bowl with protuberances surrounded by semicircular channels (pl. 12/2-4) from C 16 complex, occurred in association with a cup and a fragment of a bowl decorated on the inside rim with groups of three incisions arranged in zigzag. Another ceramic with Cehăluţ ornament was found in C 14 complex (Pl.12/1).

Channeled pottery category, often double colored is well represented. Vessels were polished on outer surface, with metallic appearance. In the composition of this category were used broken sherds.

Unbroken vessel or restorable pottery is very few. From C 107 pit, partially uncovered in the area studied, was found a footed vessel, but without upper part. The body of vessel is decorated with oblique, wide channels, with the appearance of facets with raised edges. On the maxim diameter are placed four (?) conical knobs (Pl.19/2). Close analogies in form and equally in the decor, we find, in this case, in Banat at Susani in ceramic forms (three exemplars) recovered from the excavated mound[48]. From the same area, is another exemplar from Bobda cemetery[49]. At Lăpuş tumulus necropolis are two vessels of this kind, one from a

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[42] In The Settlement from Petea-Csengersima, this type of Cups (Type 4) appears only in the complexes Grouped in the Eastern Part of the Settlement Suciu De Sus II. Instead are very common occurrences in the habitation that directly succeeds, The Lapuş II - Gáva I Settlement. This suggests that in the eastern area it would be the latest phase of Suciu De Sus II habitation from Petea-Csengersima (Marta 2009, 206).

[43] Marta 2009, 33, Pl. 28/10, 12; A similar succession of habitation at Nyírmada-Vályogvető; Tóth–Marta 2005, Pl. 11

[44] Bejinariu–Lakó 2000, Fig. 15a/1-3

[45] Lakó 1986, 50, Nr. 12

[46] Bejinariu 2005, 54

[47] Matei et. al 2005, 261-262

[48] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, 49, Pl. 16/131/133; Gumă 1995, Pl. III/38

[49] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, 49

mound dated in the first phase of necropolis, and the other from a mound assigned to the second phase [50]

In C 7 complex (Pl.10/2) were founded fragments of one large vessel and a fully preserved bowl. The first vessel belongs to the category of so-called "storied vessel". It is preserved the lower part, the body ornamented with wide channels or rather oblique facets and from upper part of vessel are preserved few sherds mostly from the rim and shoulder area of the vessel. Mouth funnel-shaped vessel was strongly flared, two small handles appear on shoulder to be interposed between a strip of horizontal channels (Pl.20). Generally these vessels are large containers. Our exemplar has a base diameter of 15 cm and 50 cm diameter of mouth. The bottom part, fully preserved, measure 22 cm. By analogy with other vessels of this kind, where lower "floor" is about 40% from the height of the vessel, our vessel measure about 50-55 cm in height. Similar vessels were found in the repertory of Gáva culture[51], and close analogies are at Gyoma, in south-east Hungary[52] Biharkeresztes [53]or at Bodrogkeresztúr, in north-west part of Hungary[54]. The bowl (Pl.19/1) had the rim slightly thickened and curved inwards. Similar examples occur also in Gáva area[55]. Another bowl with inward rim and faceted with horizontal facets (Pl.16 / 7) comes from C 70 complex (pl. 10/1) which is associated with a vessel fragment with handles and fine and horizontal channels on neck (pl. 16/4). From that pit were also recovered bone remains from two calves, one of them integral deposited.

Fragments of large vessels, some with double colors, decorated with wide channels or facets, arranged horizontally, oblique or in "garland" was recovered from the complexes C 45 (Pl.15/3) and C 47 (Pl.14/1-2). One fragment of a vessel ornamented with wide oblique facets on the body associated with horizontal channels on the conical neck is also noted (Pl.15/1). In this respect we find analogies in numerous sites from eastern Hungary, assigned to the early stage of Gáva culture, such as the Kaba–*Bitózug* or Polgar M3 motorway - site no. 1[56]

Very interesting is a vessel from the pit C 45. It is a vessel with slightly curved profile and a straight rim, but above all it has a distinct ornament made of fine channels, arranged horizontally and in "garland" in the lower register (Pl.13/2). Similar vessels in form, but more importantly, in the combination of horizontal channels and in "garland", are among the materials assigned more recently to Teleac Ia phase or in the settlement from Alba Iulia "*Monolit*" [57]or in Hungary in early Gáva site from Polgar M3 motorway - site no. 1[58]. Another vessel with the identical ornament combination of that from Pericei, comes from an unknown location in the former county Szabolcs[59]. The combination of the two ornamental motifs are found quite frequently in the previous period[60] on various shapes of vessels from Susani[61], in Crişana on pottery assigned to Igriţa group[62] or among of some so-called proto- Gáva discoveries from Hungary [63]

Also, we note one ceramic fragment of a cone-shaped lid, decorated in exterior with channels arranged in "garland" (Pl.16/3).

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[50] Kacsó 1980, 37, Pl. 24, 33/6
[51] Szabó 2002, Pl. 24/33, 36-37
[52] Genito–Kemenczei 1990, 119, Fig. 4/1, 5/1; Szabó 2004, 93, Pl. 9/20, 23
[53] Szabó 2002, Pl.135/1-2;Idem 2004 A, Fig. 6/10
[54] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. 133/14
[55] Kemenczei 1984 Pl.Cxl/18; Vicze 1996, 32, Fig. 15 / 2
[56] Szabó 2002, Pl. 174/1, 194/2
[57] Ciugudean 2009, Pl. I/2, VIII/5
[58] Szabó 2004a, Pl. 8/9
[59] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. CXXXII/20
[60] Vasiliev et. al 1991, 81
[61] Stratan–Vulpe 1977, Pl. 5/214; 9/57-58, 63-65, Etc
[62] Chidioşan–Emödi 1983, Fig.1/2, 3/2
[63] Szabó 2002, Pl. 17/4

Some vessels have been restored, the cups represent a numerically well represented category. Most common variant is the cup with the broad rounded base, and narrower mouth (Pl. 16/2; 18/10-11). The form is among the findings (unfortunately, without stratigraphic context) from Doh "*La izvoare*"[64] or from Nyírlugos (northeast Hungary), recently published [65]

Metallic inventory of Late Bronze Age complexes consist in 11 pieces. Most are small pieces, needles (Pl.18/7) or spindle of bronze pins (Pl.18/5-6), a loop ring made of bronze sheet (Pl.18/2), probably one nit (Pl.18/4) and other undeterminable fragments (Pl.18/1,3). A fragment of one mould made of sandstone, with traces of use found in pit C 79 and a cast residue constitute direct evidence of bronze processing in this settlement. From C 47 complex comes one bronze needle with pyramidal head and "collar" on neck (Pl. 18/8). Dimensions are: 13 cm. long, head diameter–1,1 cm. This needle type, generic called "bohemian" profile needles type (*Nadeln mit „böhmischer" Profilierung*) are well represented numerically, especially in the Lausitz culture area (north Moravia, north-eastern Bohemia, Silesia). The needle from Pericei can be classified in Mostkovice variant of the type, which occurs in archaeological contexts assigned to Late Tumulus Period respectively Early and Old Urnfield Period [66] In eastern part of Carpathian Basin, this type of needles appears rarely. We note here the piece found at Dubravica, in eastern Serbia[67] or that from Guşteriţa II deposit [68]

Comparing pottery coming from these two excavations presented above, we may notice the presence of some common elements. I refer especially to bicolor pottery species, decorated with wide channels or facets. This category is poorly represented at Zăuan, in comparison to Pericei site. Unfortunately neither of the two settlements do not provide reliable evidence for a precise chronology during the third phase of Late Bronze.

Archaeological inventory resulting from the excavation of Zăuan *"Bánffytag"* is not very numerous and unfortunately the uncovered pottery is associated to metal artifacts without chronological value. Comparing the findings from Zăuan with those of Suplacu de Barcău *"Lapiş"* provide support to make chronological analysis of Zăuan materials. As noted, some shapes and decorations are common to both settlements, located in the Barcău valley, to 10 km away from one another. Chronological context in which the settlement from Suplacu de Barcău "*Lapiş*" had evolved could be "traced" through metal artifacts, but also thanks to an considerable quantities of "imports" Lăpuş type pottery, unfortunately unpublished yet[69] Among them the needles discovered at Suplacu de Barcău in House 1 and House 2[70]. We note those two specimens with thickened head (an identical artifact was found in Cehăluţ settlement from Crasna "*Csereoldal*"), those two Velenszentvid type needles respectively[71]. As it is said, the first needles cannot be earlier than Reinecke D[72] whereas the last ones may be even later[73]. This raises the obvious possibility that the settlement of Suplacu de Barcău to extend its development in the early period of Urnfield culture[74]. Due to the similarities between the potteries of these two sites cannot exclude a broadly similar chronology to that of Zăuan "*Bánffytag*". Considering that Cehăluţ "component" at Zăuan is even more "diluted" compared with Suplacu de Barcău, are likely that Zăuan to be even slightly late. In my view there is a certain chronological sequence of period final Bz D - early stage Hallstatt A.

In the repertory of Late Bronze Age pottery from Pericei "*Kellertag*" like in the Zăuan case it is visible that Cehăluţ "component" is reduced. But the materials listed as

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[64] Bejinariu et. Al. 2004, Pl. V/2, VI/5
[65] Nagy 2005, Pl. V/5,7,8
[66] Říhovský 1979, 153-158; Novotná 1980, 135-137; Essen 1985, 54-59
[67] Vasič 2003, 78, No. 505
[68] Petrescu-Dîmboviţa 1977, 95-97, Pl. 160/10
[69] Kacsó 1995, 111
[70] Ignat 1984, Pl. XII/3-6
[71] Říhovský 1983, 20-21
[72] Vasiliev et al. 1991, 64-65, Boroffka 1999, 124, Nt. 66; Idem 2000, Nt. 67
[73] Boroffka 1999, 124, Nt. 66; Idem. 2000, Nt. 67
[74] Kacsó 1997, 88; Idem. 1999, 101

Cehăluţ type, are not associated with the double color pottery and decorated characterized with channels, except the cup fragment of C 45 complex, which has a conical knob, bounded on two sides by three wider incisions (Pl.15/5), vaguely reminiscent of an of Cehăluţ motif element. But do not exclude the existence of a chronological gap between complexes, such as C 14 and C 16 where were founded materials decorated with Cehăluţ ornament and those where bicolor pottery with channels or wide facets (C 7, 45, 47, 70 etc). In other words not exclude the possibility that at Pericei to have a distinct Cehăluţ settlement followed by a new one, little more recent. Based on ceramic analogies the later complexes can be chronologically placed in early phase of Gáva culture. Chronologically they may be placed in a broader context, during Hallstatt A phase, perhaps in the second half period. Even if in the Lausitz culture area, needles, such as found in C 47 complex appear also in earlier stages than archaeological contexts mentioned, based on association with pottery, the needle from Pericei belong to Hallstatt A also, all the more that Guşteriţa II deposit where a needle of this kind belongs to Cincu–Suseni series[75]

Conclusions

The evolution of Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos sites was placed, as I said during the first two stagess of Late Bronze Age in northwestern Romania. In this area, cultural background of Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos type is that on which are "grafted" different influences, which changes the appearance of pottery (most clearly detectable element) and creates the premises of new forms emergence and new decorative elements, new ignition technology which all slowly lead to channeled pottery, of Gáva type from the beginning of Hallstatt period. Among these influences are well noticed within the pottery from Zăuan and even from Pericei, those coming from the southwest of Banat–Vojvodina, from Belegiš culture area, and those from Susani group especially. Influences from this area (as so-called "ceramic imports") can be detected also in other discoveries from northwestern Romania[76] or south-western Transylvania[77] and far to north of the Carpathians[78]. Also Suciu de Sus–Lăpuş influences are not missing.

It is difficult to establish the moment when these influences begin to be felt in the area where Cehăluţ - Hajdúbagos materials are documented, which ultimately determines the decisive change in the appearance of pottery. In other words how long is the "independent" evolution of this group? Chronological marks offered by metal artifacts founded in settlements, such as Crasna or Suplacu de Barcău, alongside with the discovery of some Cehăluţ - Hajdúbagos vessels uncovered in settlements attributed to other cultural backgrounds[79] converge to accept the extension of Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos group until the end of Bz D stage. Discoveries such as that of the Suplacu de Barcău seem to justify this assumption. Instead, at Zăuan we deal with a more recent settlement[80], where the pottery, despite some similarities with the first site, just few elements is preserved of clear Cehăluţ tradition. The findings from Pericei "*Kellertag*" illustrate a new stage of evolution at the end of Late Bronze Age, with a ceramic material that can be attributed to Gáva I phase. If the site from Zăuan is chronologically placed somewhere at the end of Late Bronze II–early Late Bronze III stage, channeled and bicolor pottery complexes from Pericei can be placed during the Late Bronze III stage.

In the area to which we refer, this stage (Late Bronze Age III) is still insufficiently known. The number of archaeological sites assigned to this stage is incomparably lower than the sites belonging to previous stages of the Late Bronze Age. Besides those we can add the findings from Doh[81], Marca "*Primăria nouă*"[82] the materials from Zalău "*Valea Miţii*",

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75 Petrescu–Dîmboviţa 1977, 96, Pl. 160/10
76 Marta 2009, 208
77 Ursuţiu et al. 2009, 195
78 Przybyła 2005, 162, Idem 2005a, 232
79 Marta 2009, 206, Pl. 49/6
80 Does not exclude the possibility that integral publishing of Suplacu De Barcău "Lapiş" material bring clearer benchmarks of site chronology.
81 Bejinariu et. al. 2004, 114-116, Pl. II/3-4, Iv/4

Nuşfalău " *Nagyutca, nr. 527"* (all unpublished), also maybe Şimleu Silvaniei *"Brijigă"*[83] In same cases (Pericei, Doh) these settlements of Late Bronze III period, evolve on the place of some earlier Cehăluţ–Hajdúbagos settlements. Although we have no clear evidence, whether it is continuity in habitation or between the two settlements there is a hiatus, that situation is a sign that evolution is happening on the local background, which assimilate new elements. In other words, there is no evidence that their imposition involves an influx of people coming from other areas[84], but uptake by local communities of new combustion techniques, shapes and decorative elements in ceramic production[85].

The aspect of Gáva culture pottery in the earlier stage is owing to the background, on which that progress is achieved. Thus in the Someş area "local aspect" is given by the late Suciu de Sus background as is demonstrated by the excavations results from Petea-Csengersima[86] while the in space between Crasna and Barcău, Cehăluţ tradition is detectable. Subsequently, the cultural uniformity process, visible within "classic" Gáva (Gáva II) pottery continues. For example, only now are documented bowls with inward rim in the area previously occupied by Lăpuş II–Gáva I. But these settlements belong to Gáva II phase.

Based on current data, the beginning of the large fortified settlement from Şimleul Silvaniei "*Observator*" can not be establish earlier than contemporary period from the end of Gáva I phase–early Gáva II phase. A close similar chronology is postulated for similar monuments in the area located to the north[87].

The presented findings from Zăuan, respectively Pericei get some useful data to outline cultural evolution in north-western area of Romania in the late Bronze Age. In essence, this development is part of the general trend of the area, generalization of shapes and decorations of pottery and new firing techniques. Currently these issues are most easily discernible. Others are required to be resolved in future through a multidisciplinary approach. Further more extensive research is needed, especially in vicinity of Şimleu Bassin (the middle basin of Barcău river, Carei Plain) where we have only limited information and uncertain archaeological contexts[88] Apparent differences[89] can be determined by the geographical position of each micro-region, closer or more distant from the ways of propagation of influences, able to promote dynamism and, contrary more autarchic character of communities. Not at last, the research state can also be invoked.

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[82] Bejinariu–Băcueţ 2007, 224
[83] Sana 2006, Pl.9/7
[84] Kacsó 2007, 53
[85] Przybyła 2005, 162
[86] Marta 2009, 220
[86] Ibidem
[86] Kacsó 2007, 53
[86] Németi 2009, 213-214
[87] Marta 2009, p. 220
[88] Kacsó 2007, 53
[89] Németi 2009, 213-214

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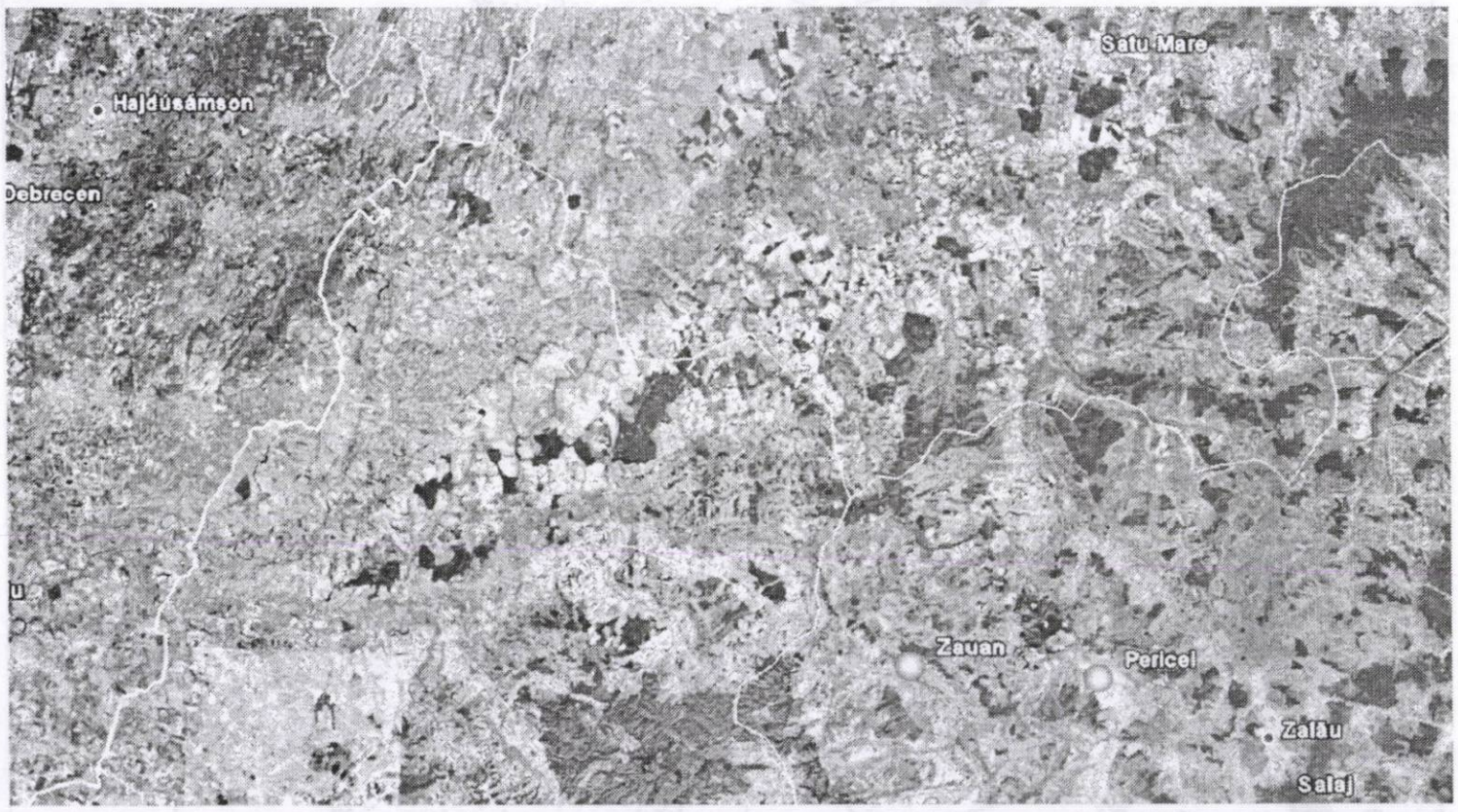
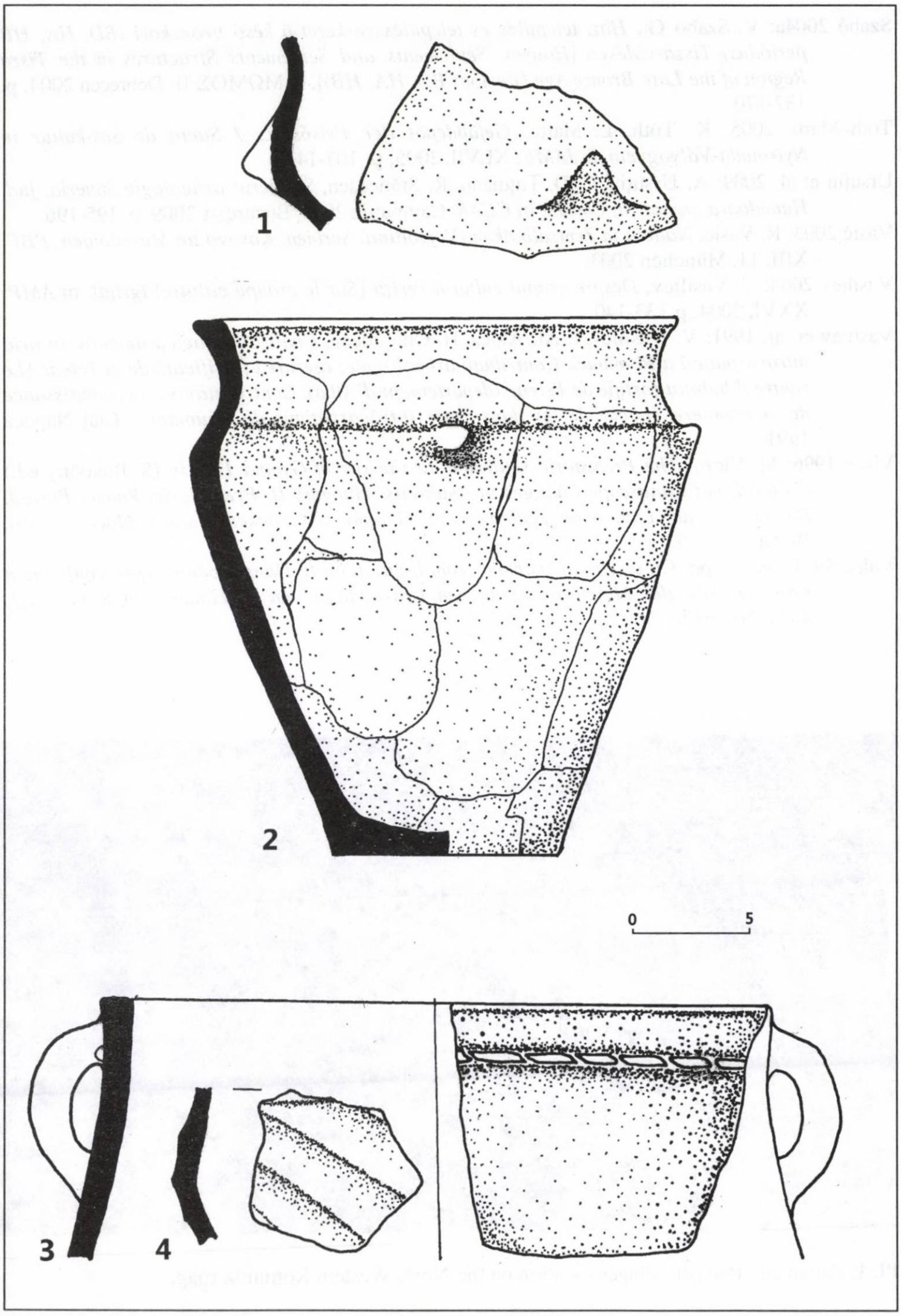
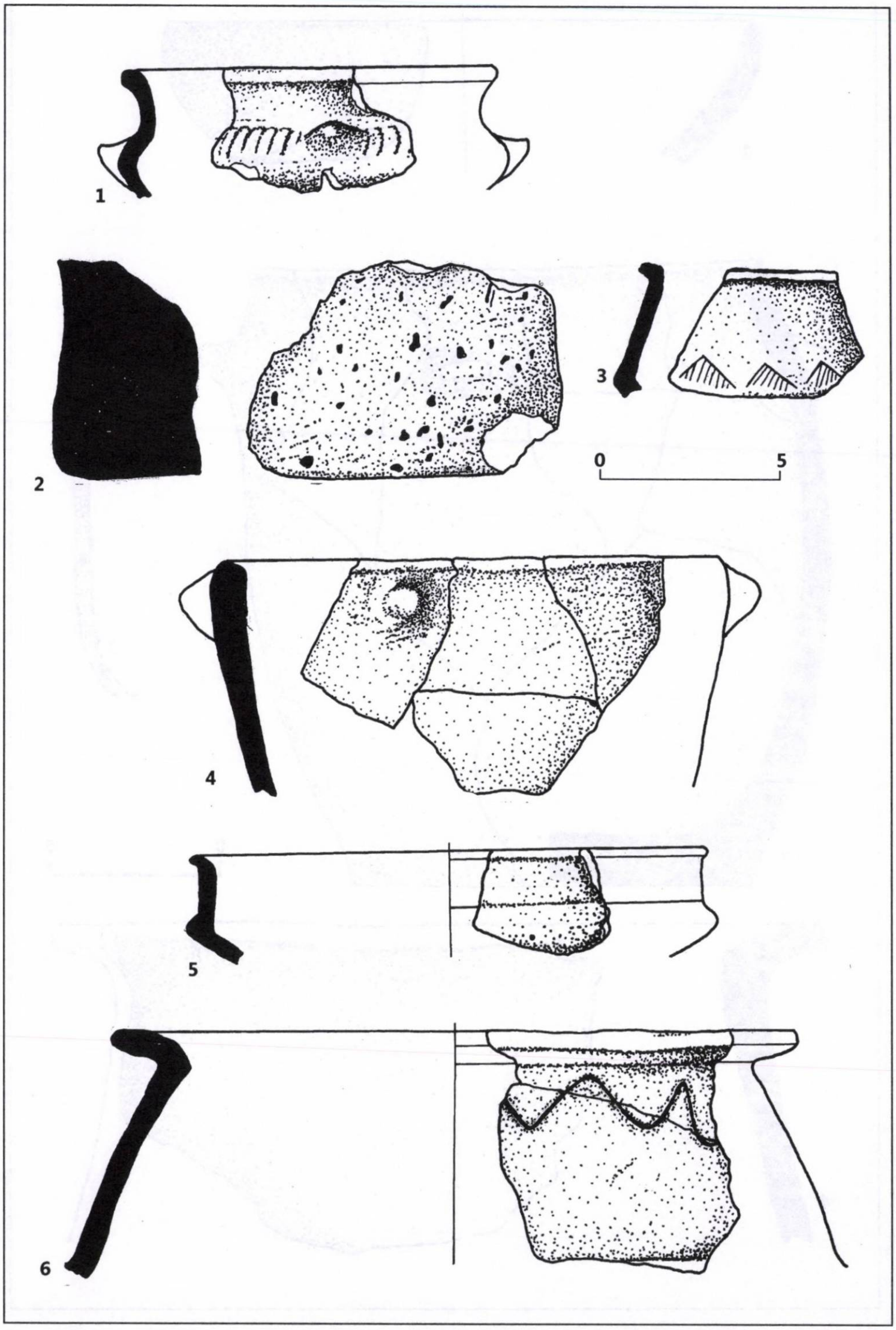


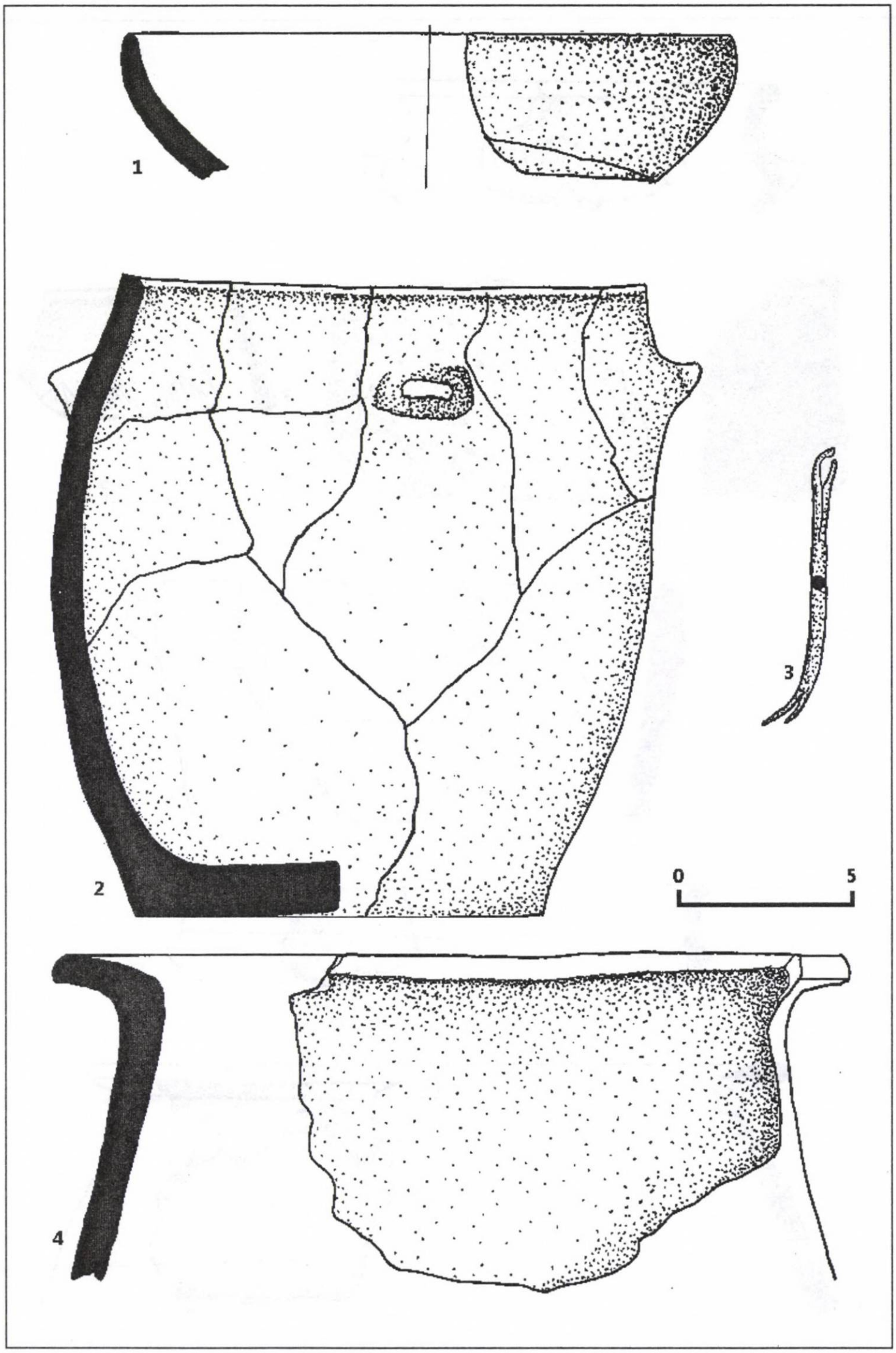
Pl. 1. Zăuan and Pericei villages location on the Norh-Western Romania map.



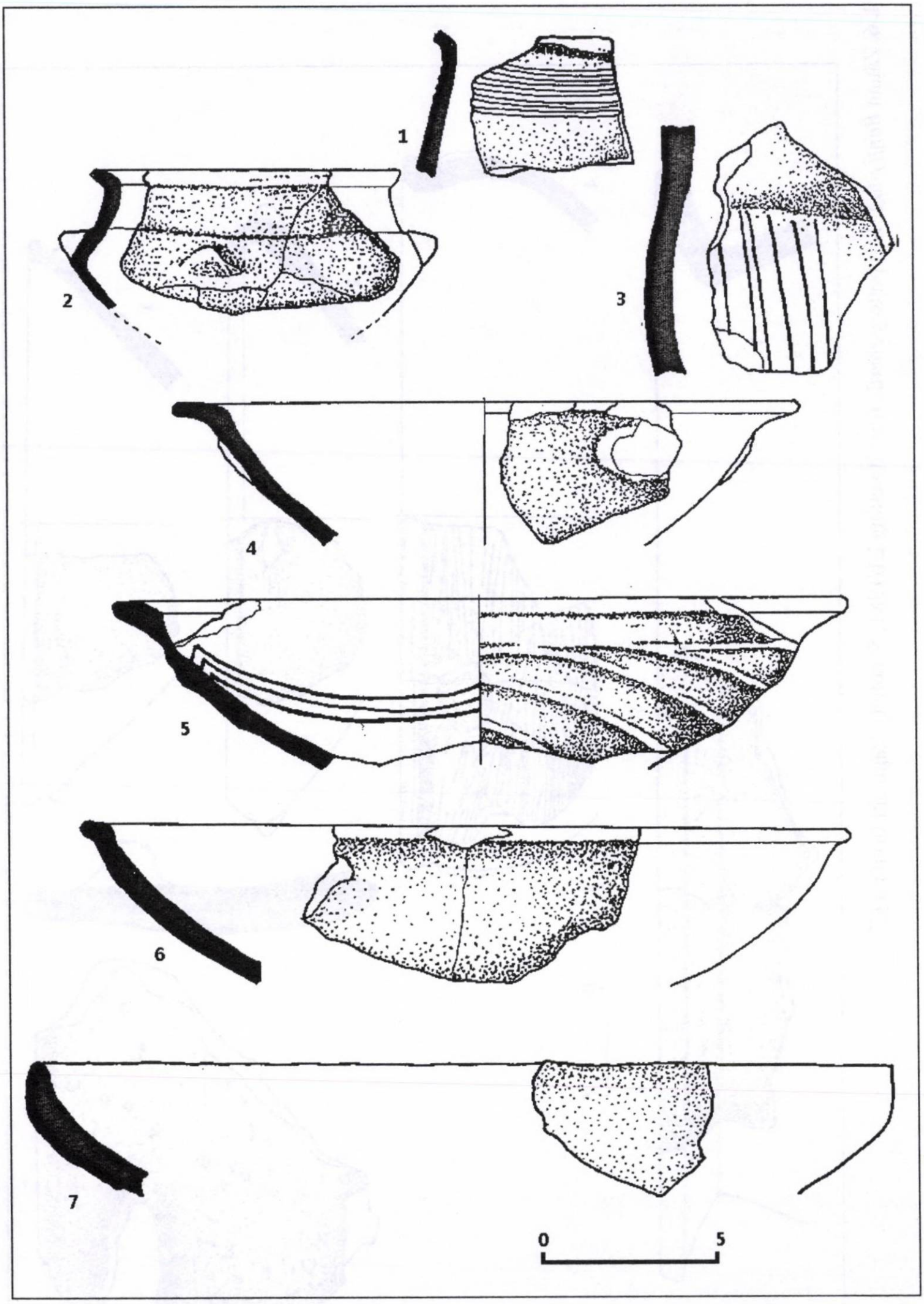
Pl. 2. 1-4: Zăuan *Banffy-tag*, pottery sherds from C1/1976.



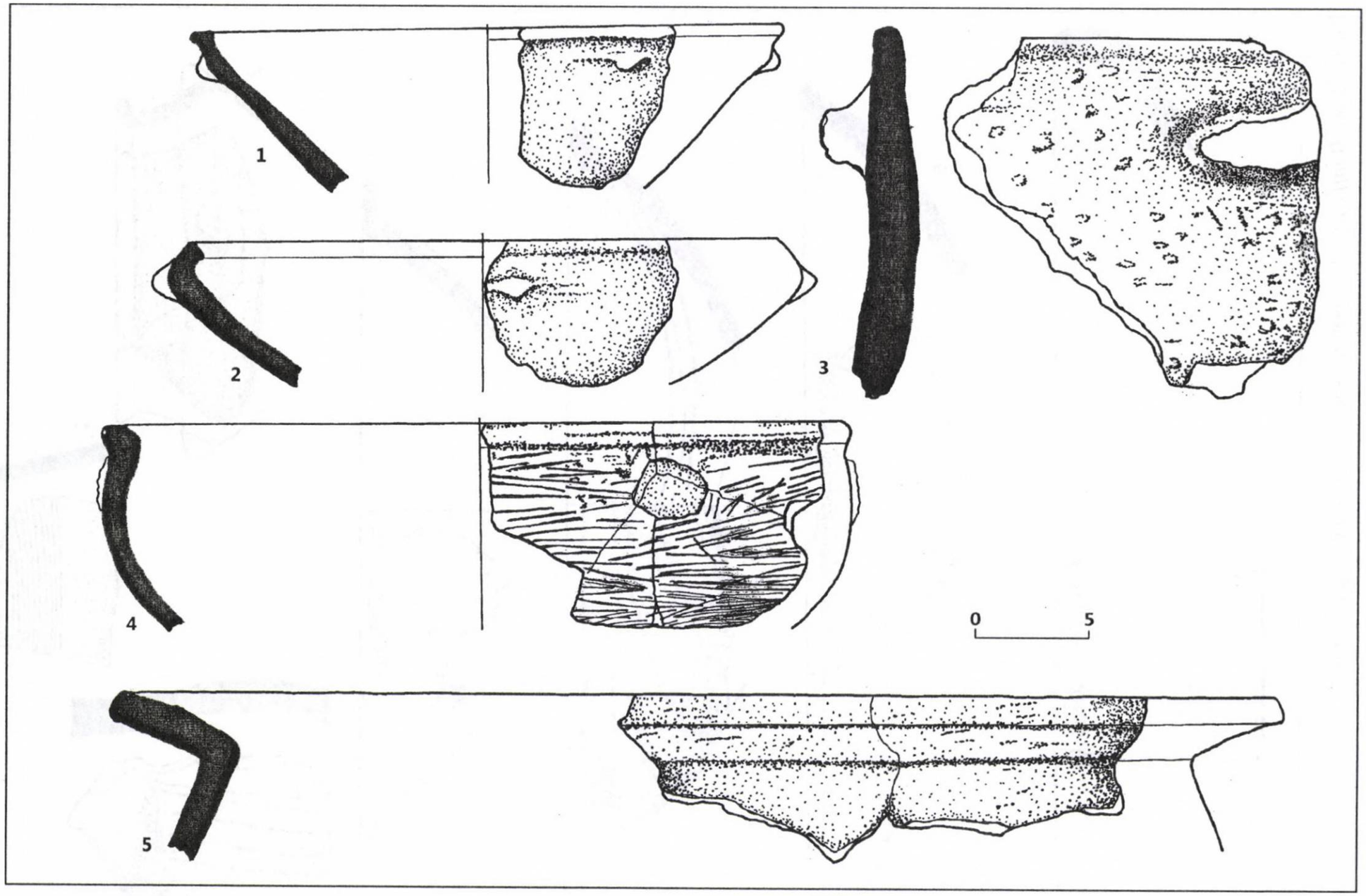
Pl. 3. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1,4: pottery sherds from pit G1; 2-3, 5-6: pottery sherds from dwelling L1/1981.



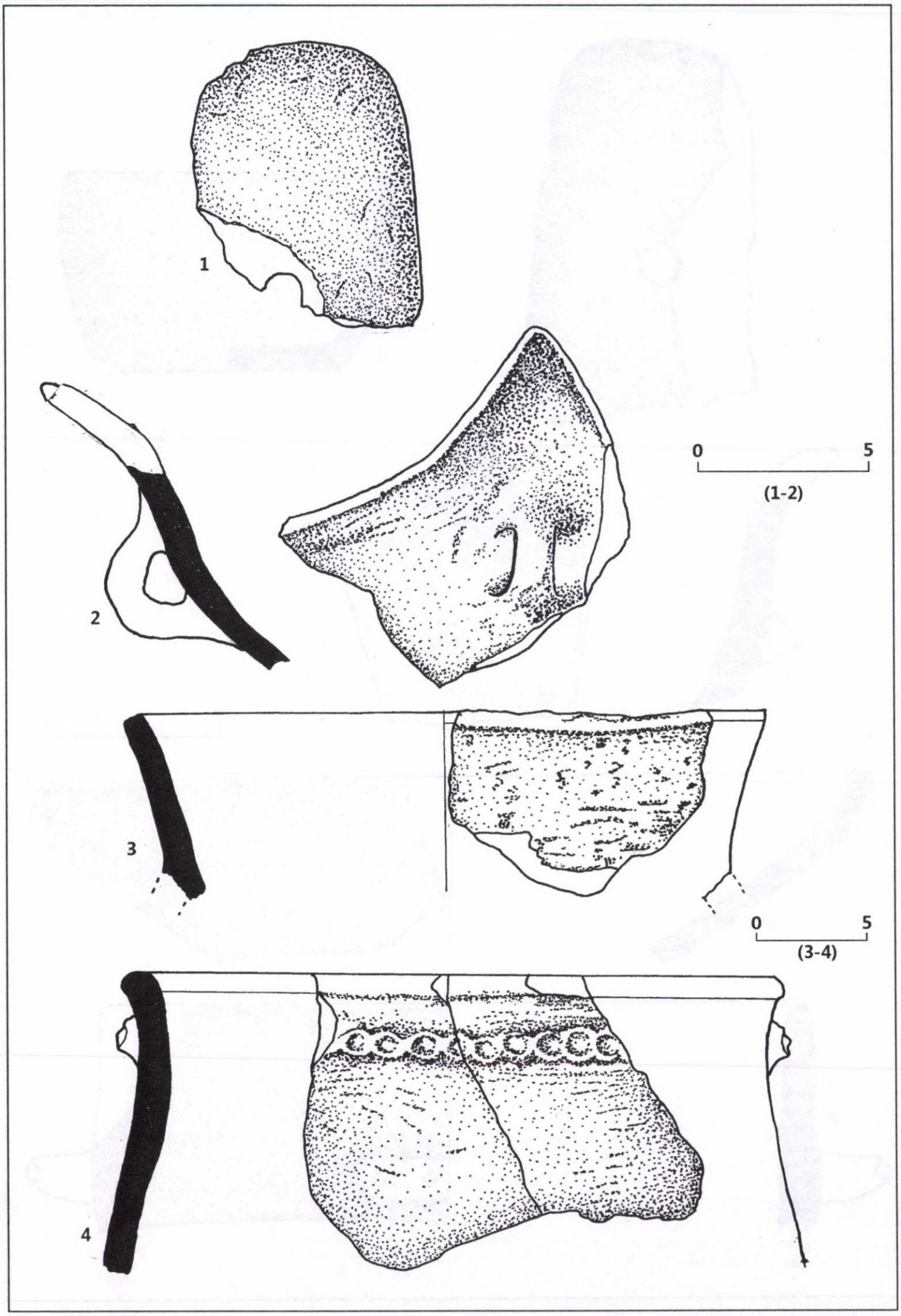
Pl.4. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1: pottery fragment from pit G2; 2-4: archaeological materials from dwelling L1/1981 (3–bronze needle).



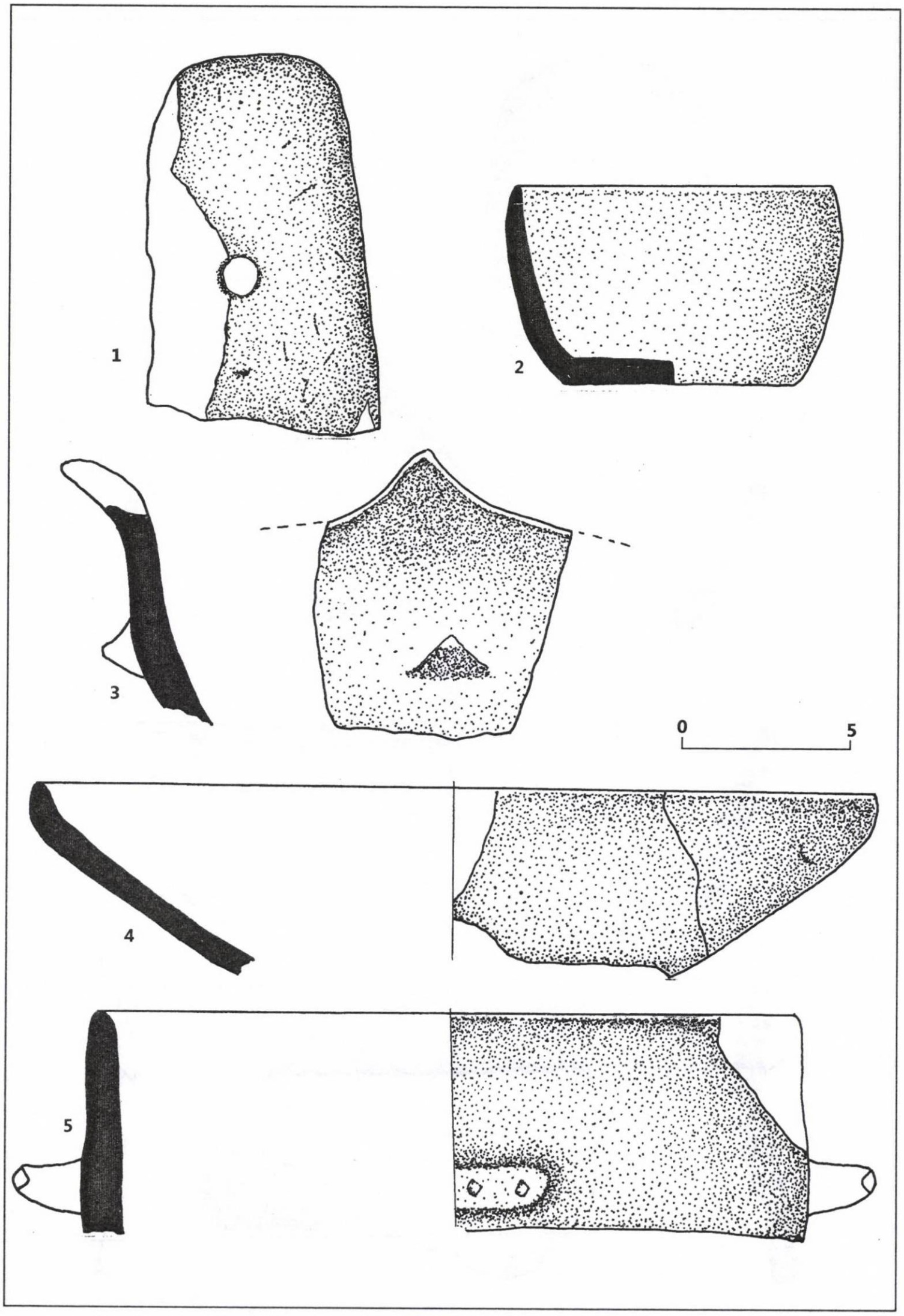
Pl. 5. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1-7: pottery sherds from dwelling L1/1981.



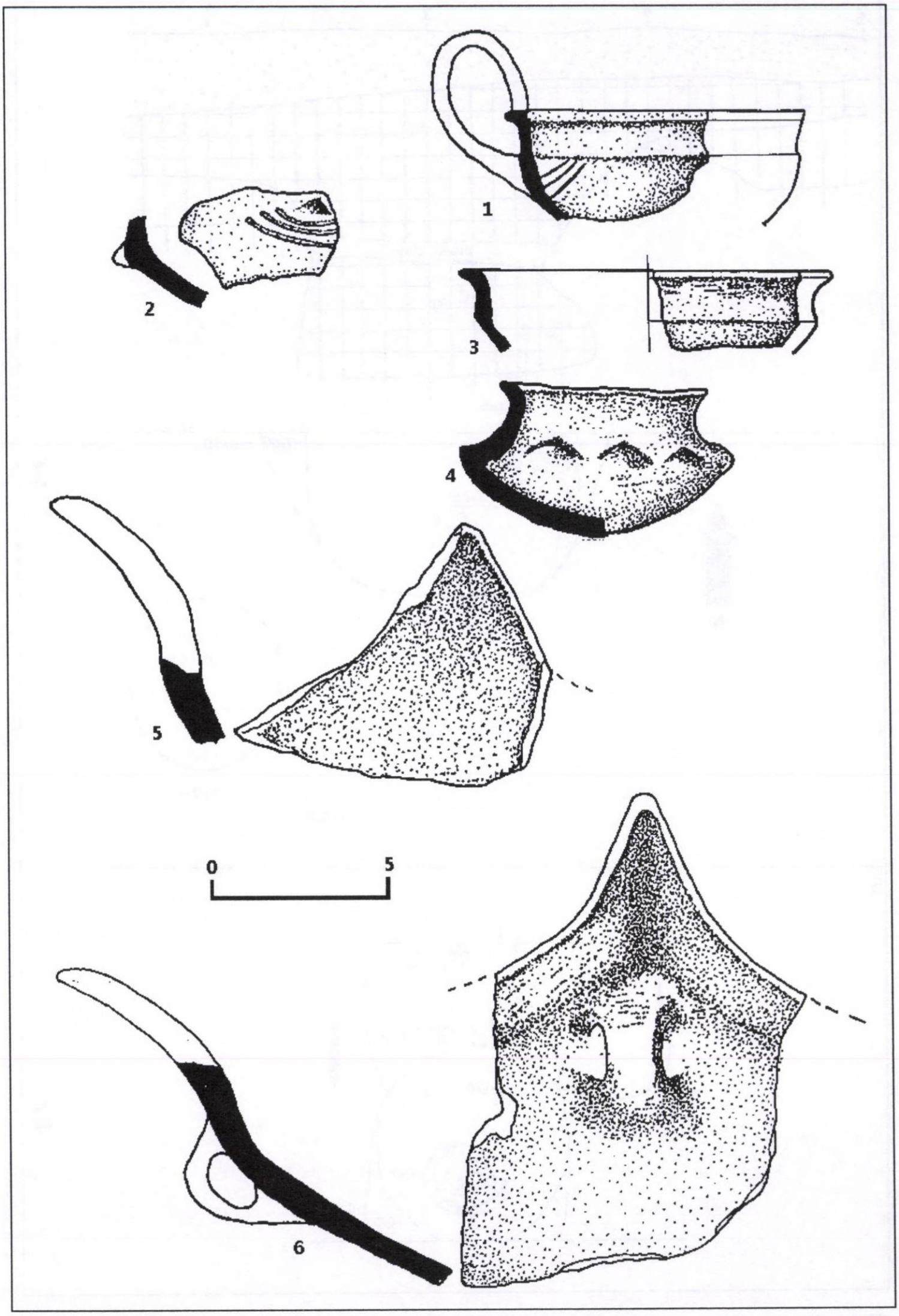
Pl. 6. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1-4: pottery sherds from dwelling L1/1981; 5: pottery fragment from pit G2.



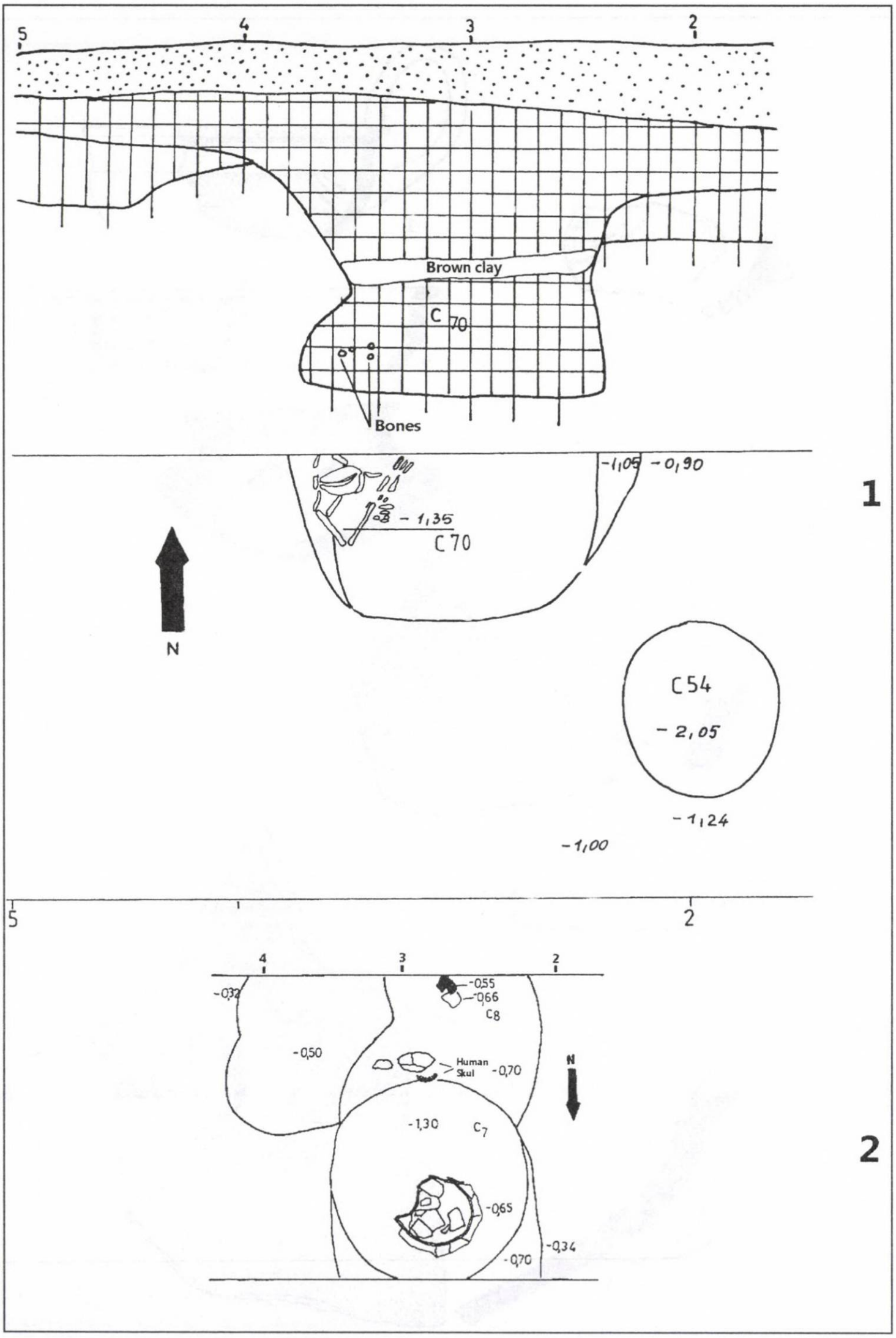
Pl. 7. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1: clay weight from pit G1; 2-4: pottery sherds from dwelling L1/1981.



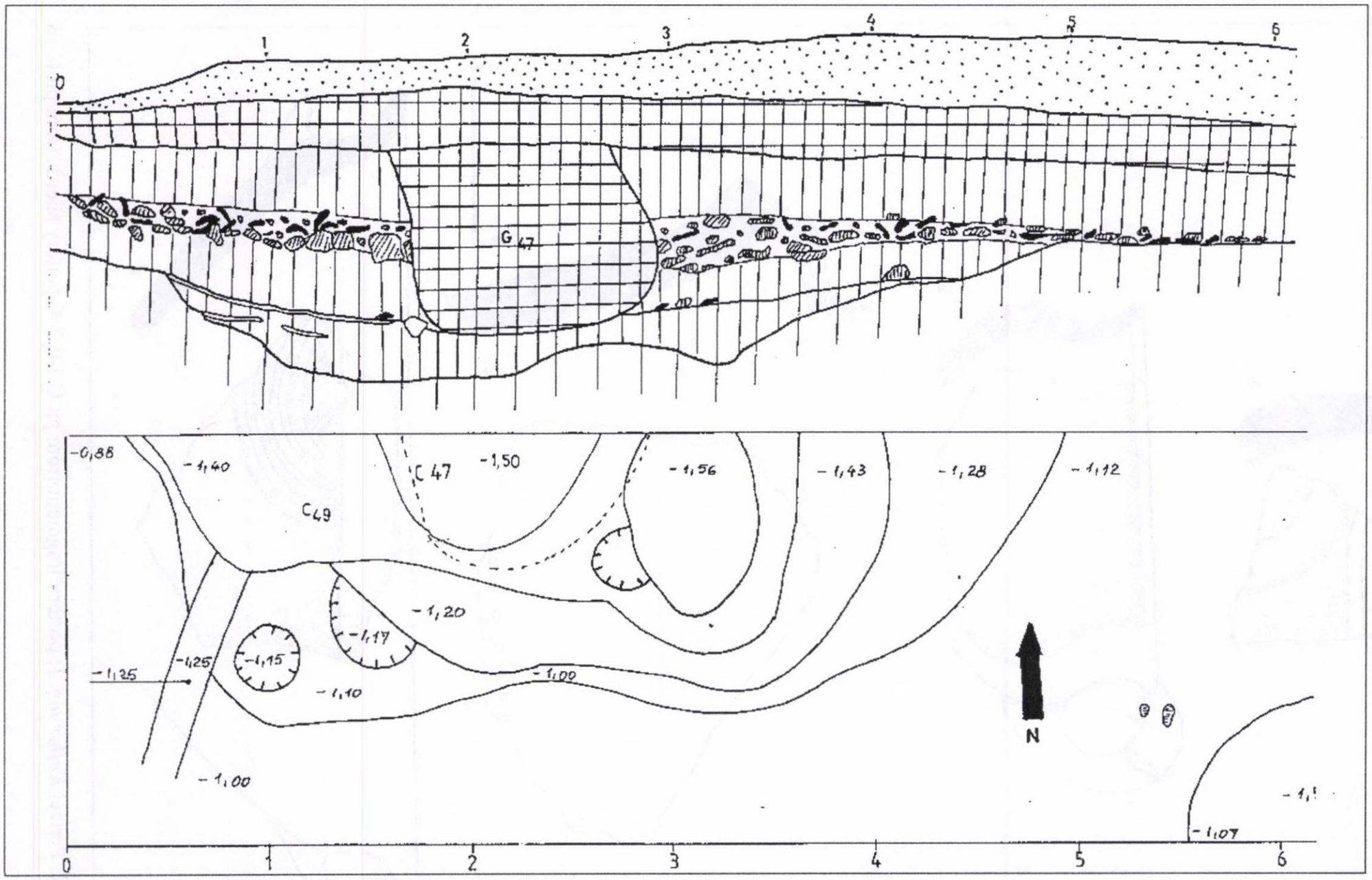
Pl. 8. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1-3,5: pottery sherds from pit G4; 4: pottery fragment from pit G1.



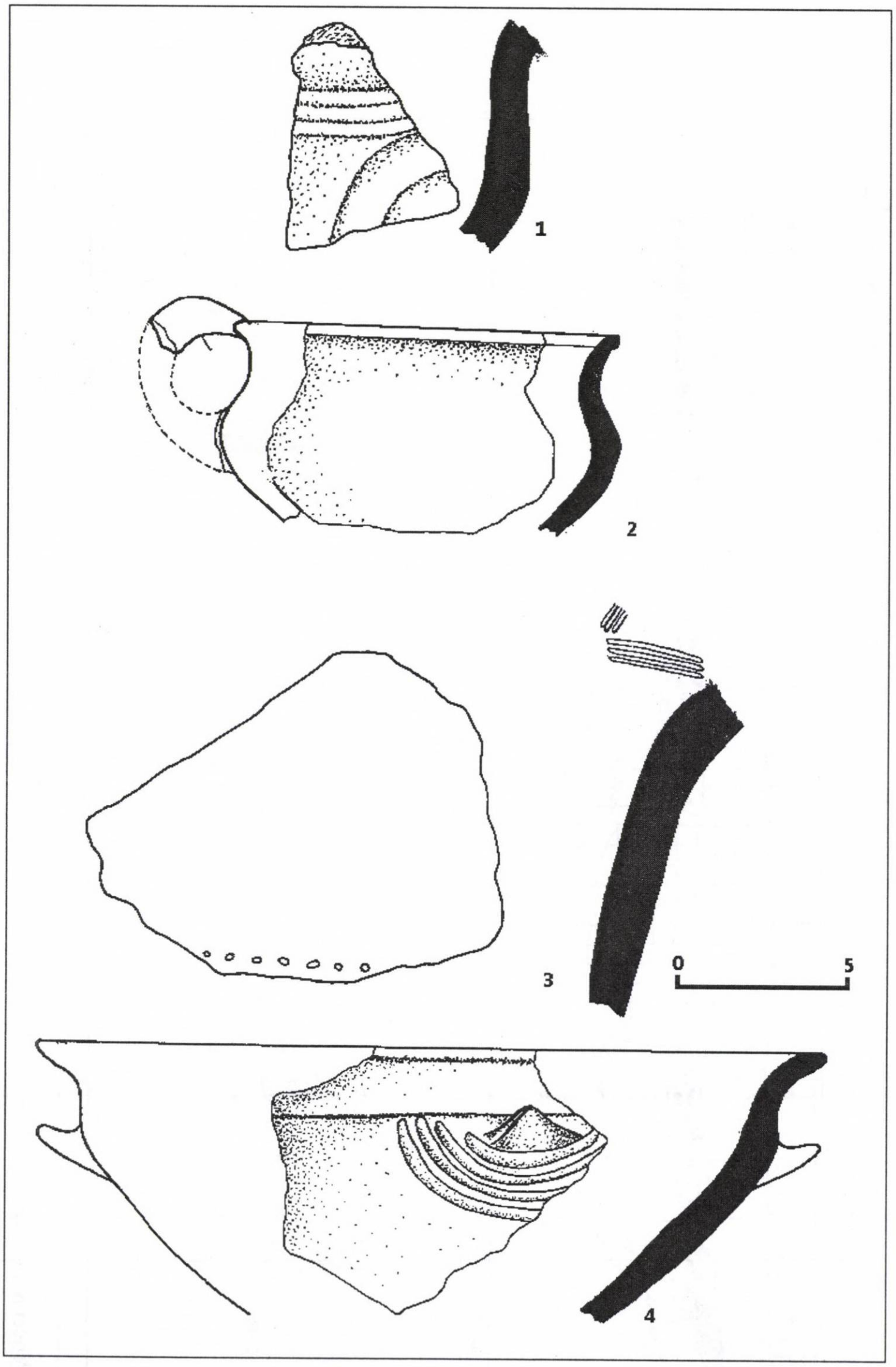
Pl. 9. Zăuan *Banffy-tag*. 1-6: pottery sherds from dwelling L1/1981.



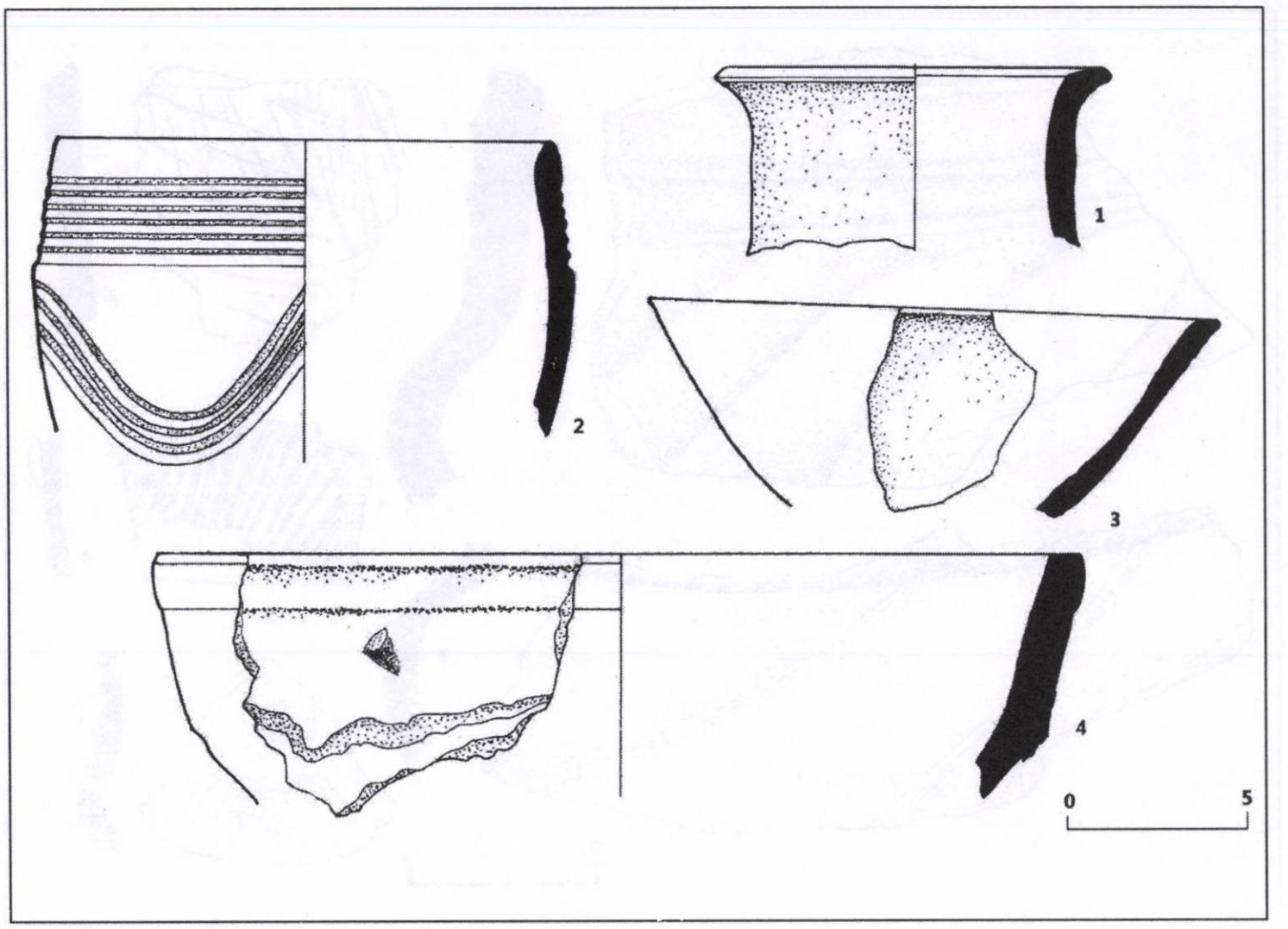
Pl.10. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1: pit C 70 (profile and plan); 2: pit C 7 (plan).



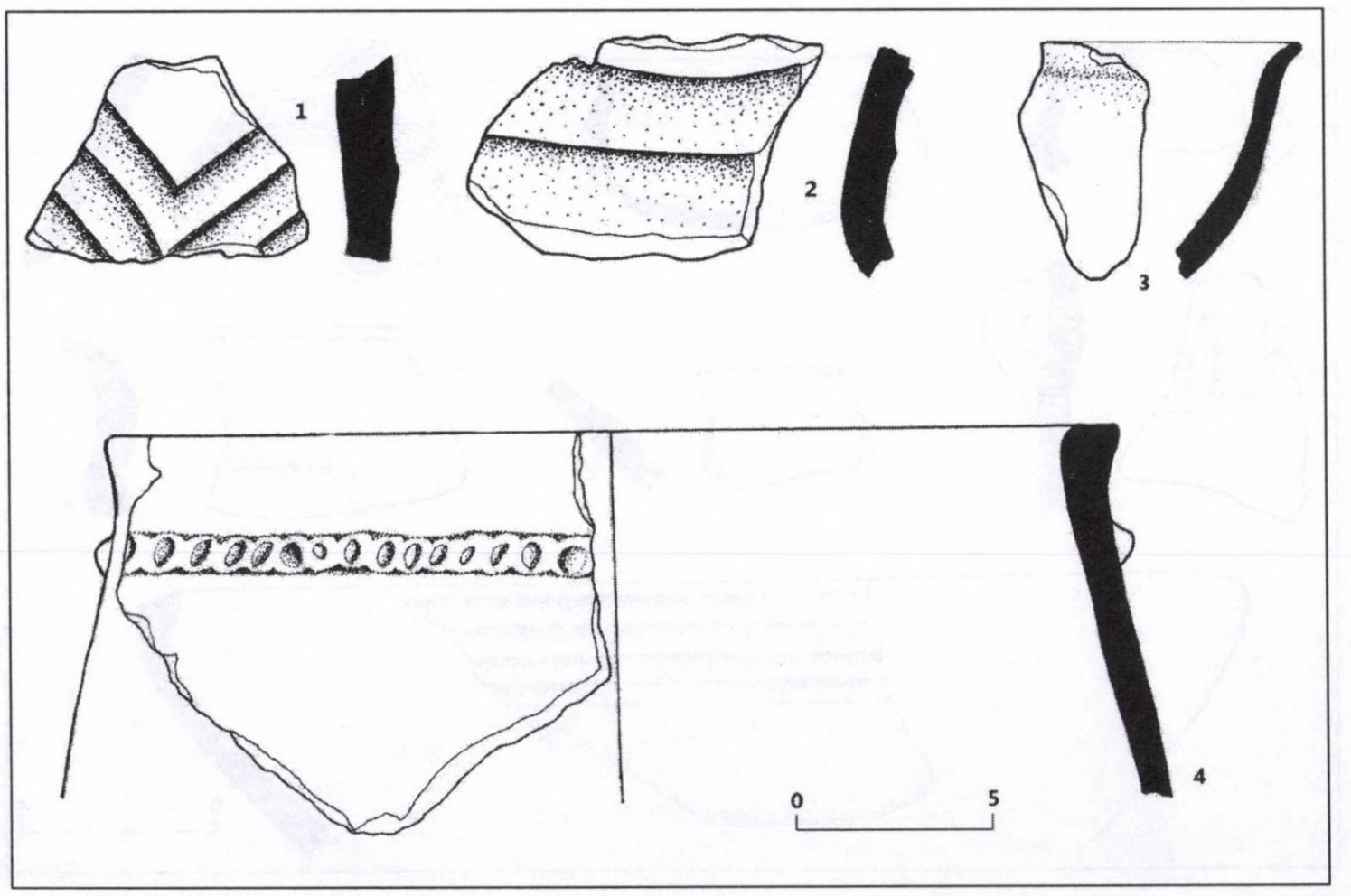
Pl. 11. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1: pit C 47 (profile and plan).



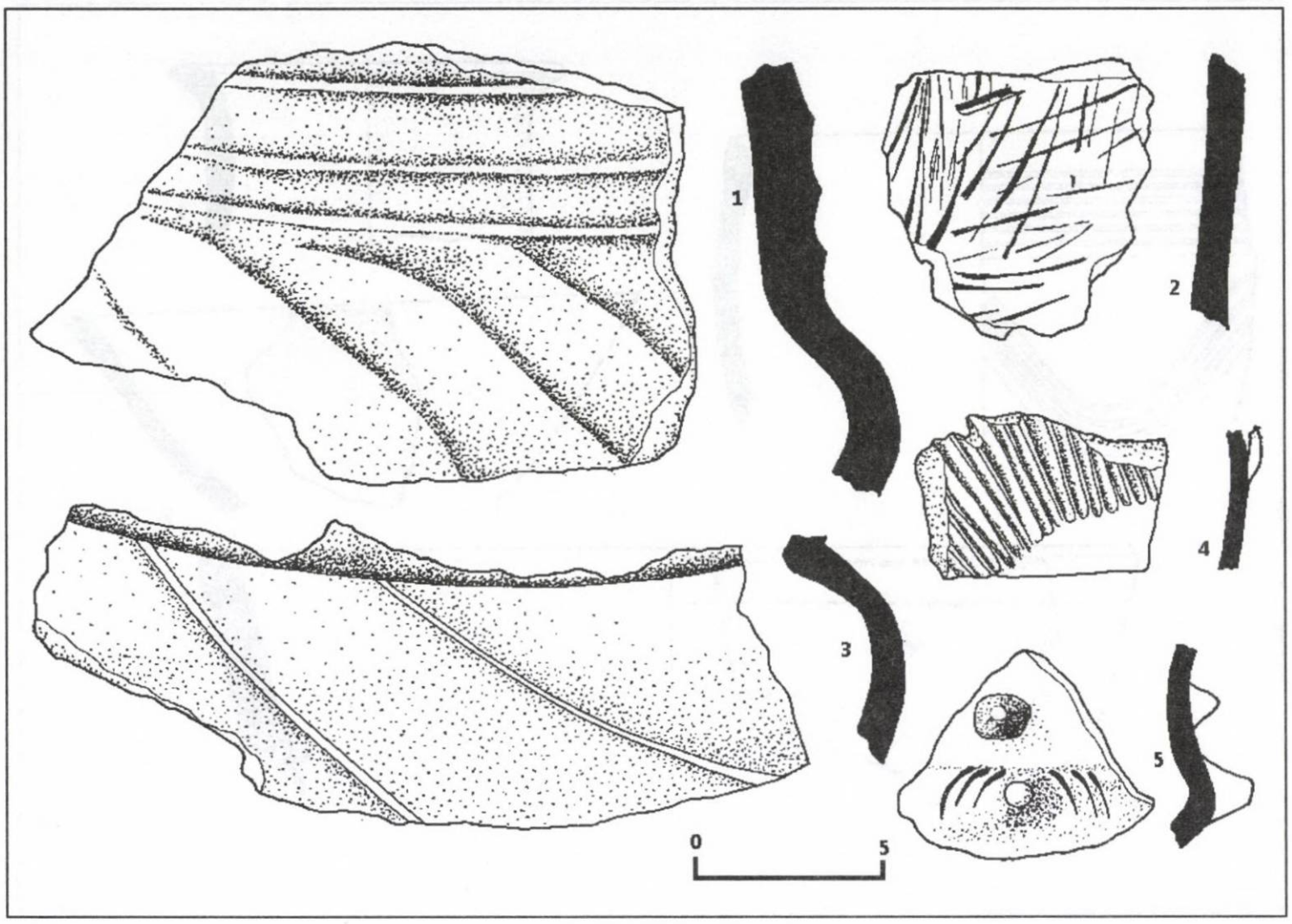
Pl. 12. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1: pottery fragment from pit C 14; 2-4: pottery sherds from pit C 16.



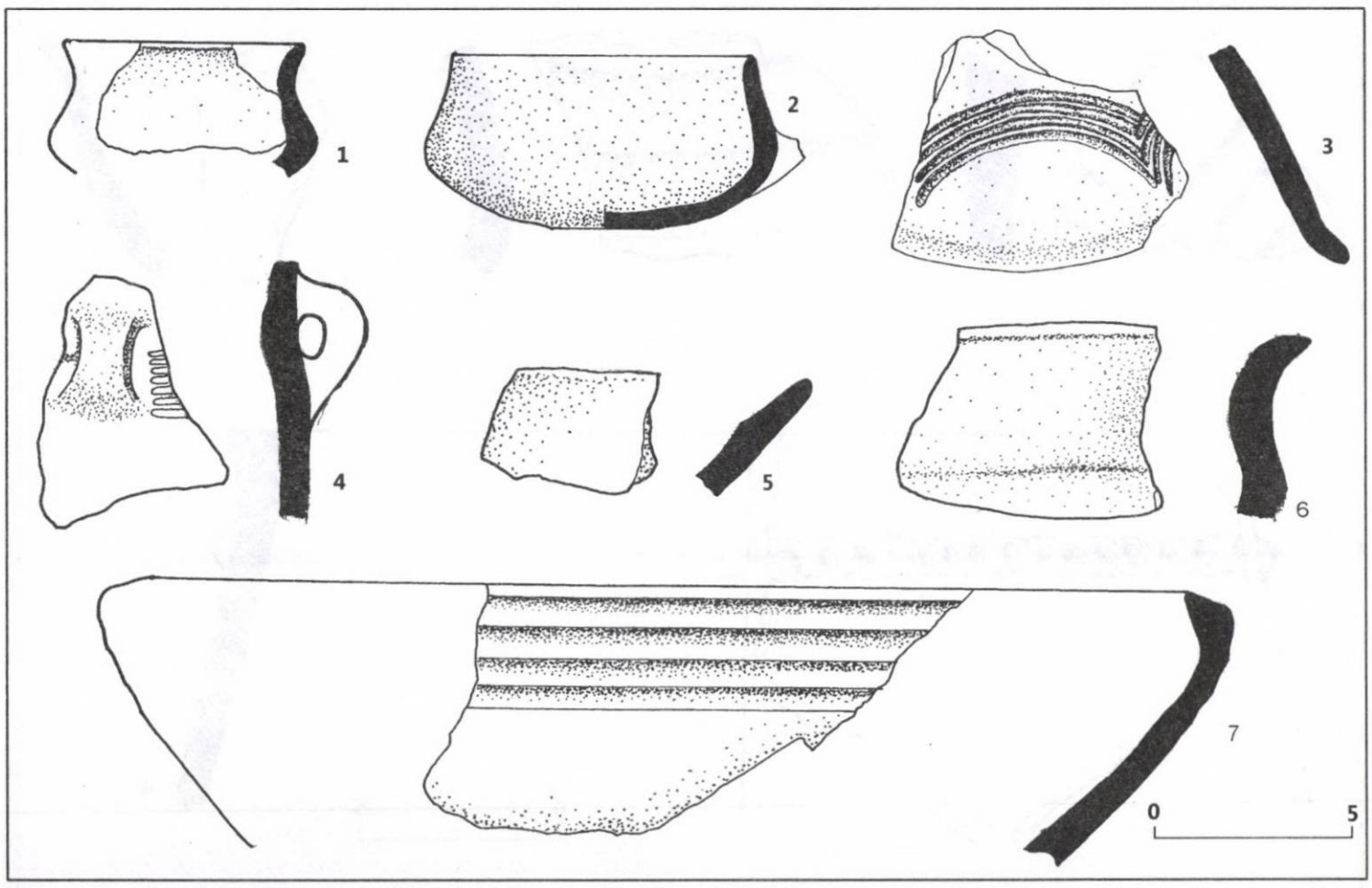
Pl. 13. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1-4: pottery sherds from pit C 45.



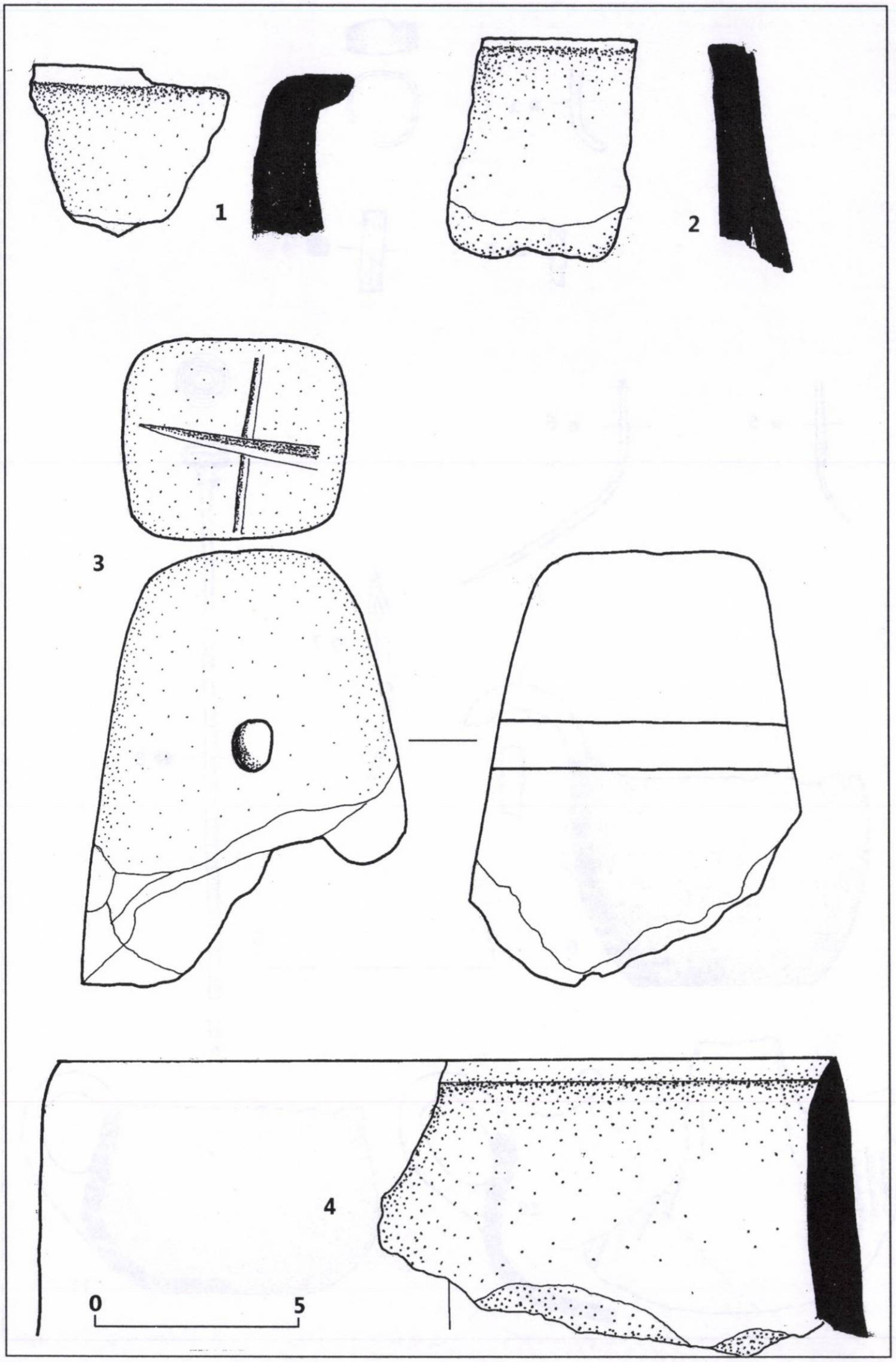
Pl. 14. Pericei *Keller-tag*. Potery sherds from pit C 47.



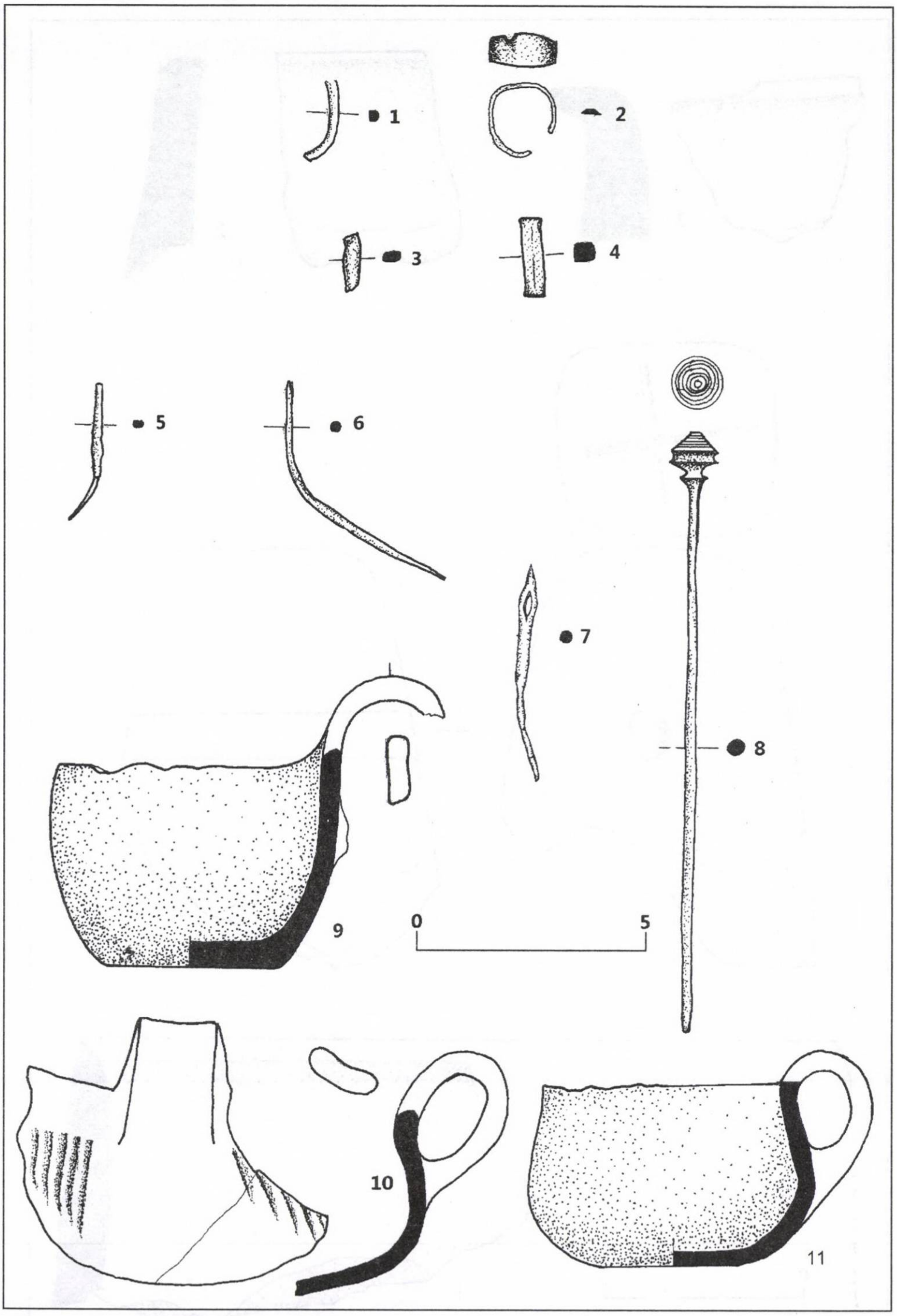
Pl. 15. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1-4: pottery sherds from pit C 45.



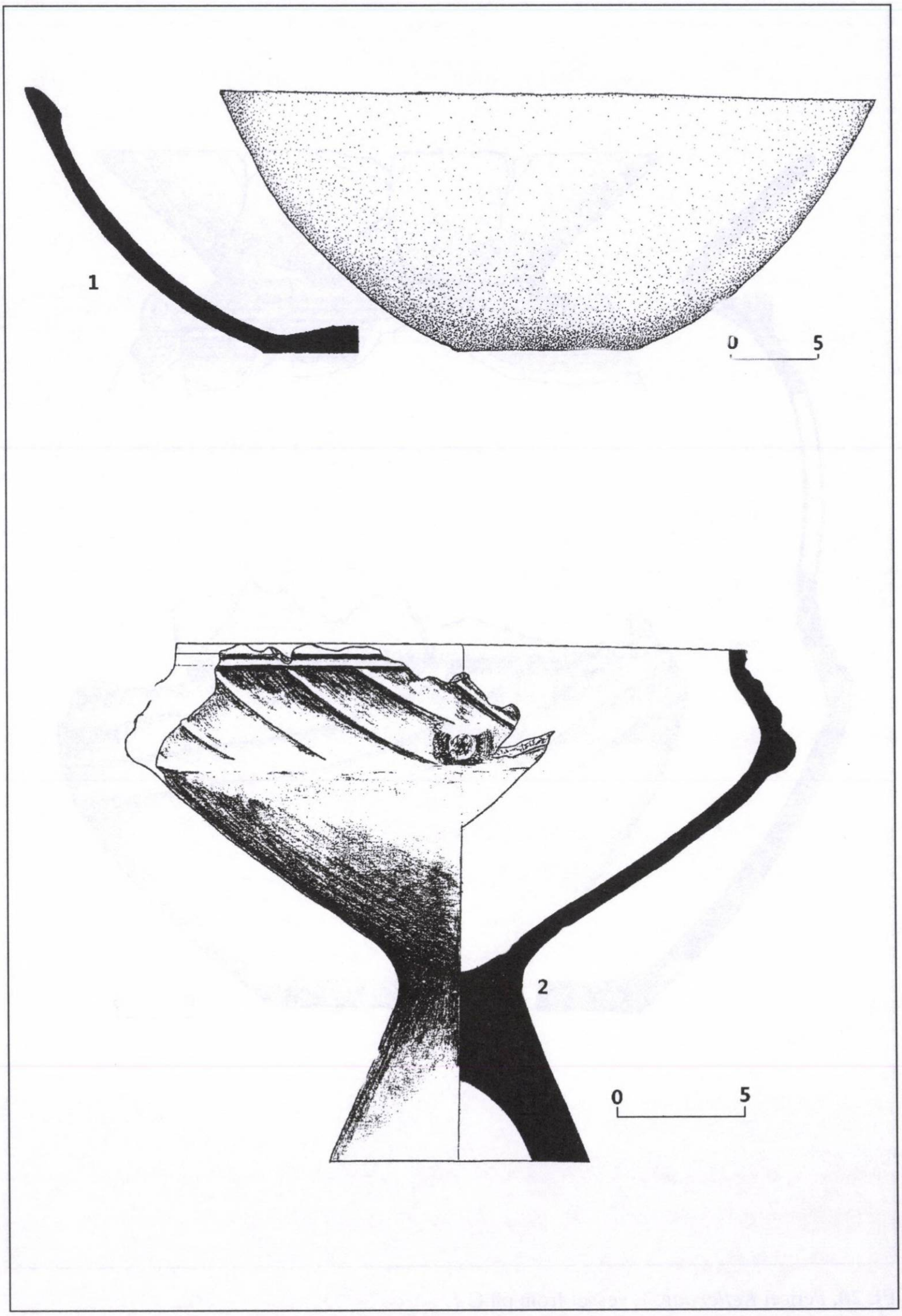
Pl. 16. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1,6: pottery from pit C 41; 2: from pit G 105; 4-5,7: from pit C 70; 3: from culture layer.



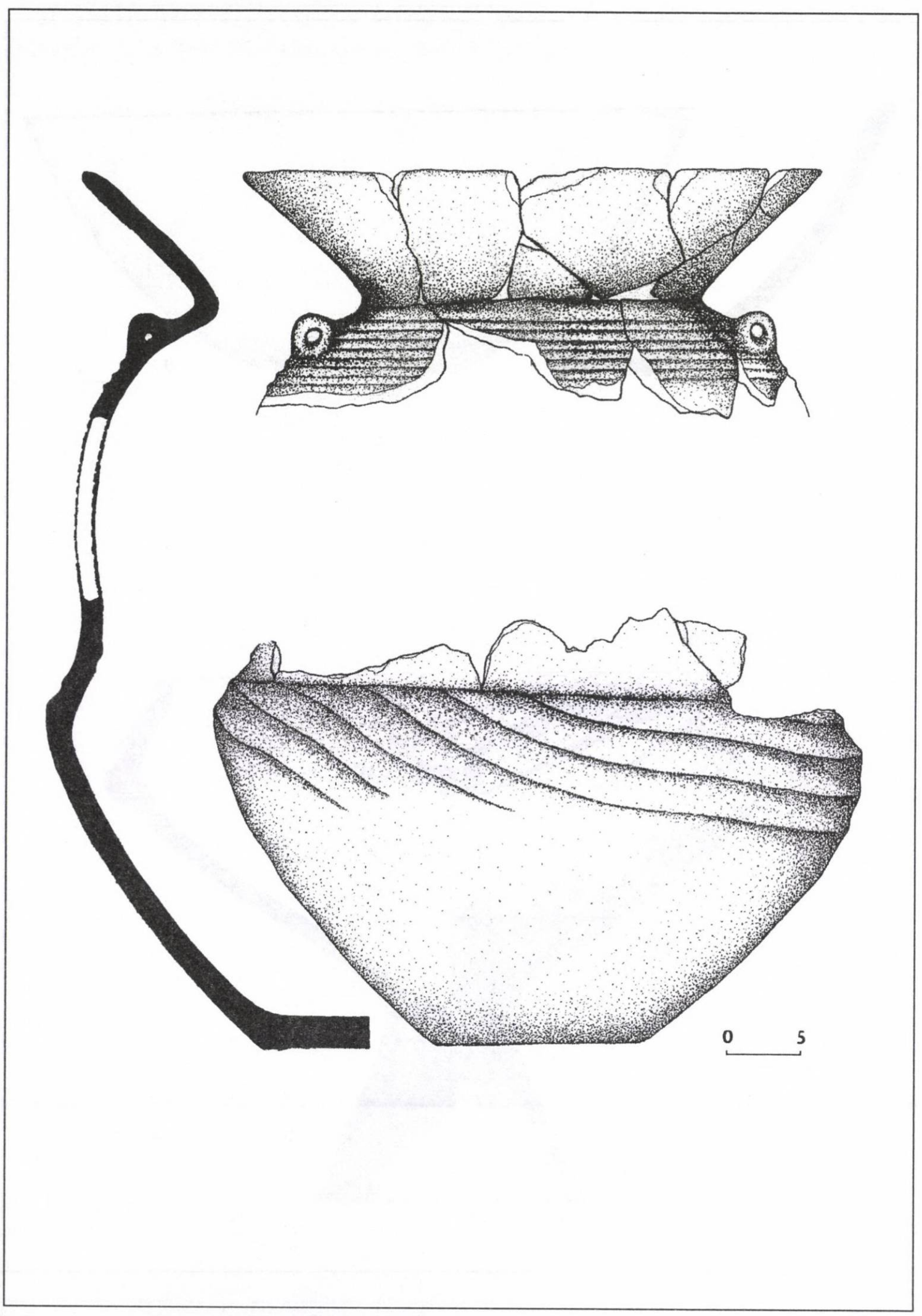
Pl. 17. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1,3: archaeological materials from pit C 47; 2,4: pottery sherds from pit C 45.



Pl. 18. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1, 5-6: bronze artefacts from culture layer; 2: from pit C 63; 3: from pit C 14; 4: from pit C 23; 7: from pit C 86; 8: from pit C 47; 9: cup from pit C 89; 10: cup fragment from culture layer; 11: cup from pit C 29.



Pl. 19. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1: bowl from pit C 7; 2: vessel from pit C 107.



Pl. 20. Pericei *Keller-tag*. 1. vessel from pit C 7.

Acâs – Râtul lui Veres (Veres-rét). The Late Bronze Age settlement.

János Németi

The commune of Acâs (Satu Mare County) is situated by the Crasna river and the national road 19A. The settlement was identified in 1982 through a field research carried out at about 500 m south-east of the commune, on the left bank of the Crasna river (the old channel), in the area of a former deserted meander. The military Josephine map issued at the end of the 18th century and the aerial photography (that has been recently made) were evidence to the fact that the Crasna river changed its antique course. One meander closed due to natural causes, namely because of sand depositions and consequently an island would emerge in that place, very favourable to living. Later on, the Crasna river changed its course again, and one of its meanders reached close to the low placed gardens of the commune. The works of routing the old course of the river and erecting a dam on the left bank of the new water course have disturbed many archaeological vestiges, dated between the Copper Age and the 11th-13th centuries - the Arpadian period[1] (Pl. I-II).

History of research

In 1855, the Crasna channel (the old course) revealed a golden bracelet with massive bar, which was profiled and had two spirals at both ends. The body had embossed stripes and was decorated by notches[2]. In 1970, while a survey was being carried out, the history teacher of the commune, Kónya László, showed me a vessel shard which had been found nearby the mill from the Crasna riverside. The shard was black on the outside and brown-greyish on the inside, decorated by a knob surrounded by narrow flutings[3]. The latter fragment is hosted in the collection of the Satu Mare County museum. The survey research couldn't reveal the existence of any archaeological sites on the Crasna riverside because the area wasn't tilled (it was used for grazing). Traces of a Bronze Age habitation have been recorded only in the gardens of the last street that reached until the channel.

In the period between the years 1981 and 1983, the area called „Crasna veche" was submitted to ample works of water drainage, lined drainage and levee, which have largely affected one Late Bronze Age settlement. On that occasion little rescue survey was carried out by Gh. Lazin and N. Iercoşan. Based on the observations made at that time, the settlement had one living level with a thin cultural layer of approximately 0,30-0,40 m. Waste pits have been investigated and a rich pottery material has been therefore recovered[4]. During other field research which we have carried out, grinder fragments, pottery shards of portable cooking-vessels, cups, mugs, tureens and bowls, fragments of fired walls, hearths have been recovered. The artefacts are awarded to the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţi group. On the same occasion, the collapse of the left bank of the Old Crasna river, located between the gardens of the dwellings in that street and the mill, revealed pottery fragments of the Middle Bronze Age, the final phase of the Otomani culture. Also, the surface survey has uncovered other pottery fragments of the Tiszapolgár, Coţofeni-Baden, La Tène – Celtic, La Tène – Dacian, from the period of the Imperial Rome, the migration period (Slavs), the early feudalism (8th and 9th centuries) and the Arpadian period (11th to13th centuries).

Of the archaeological materials that were rescued by N. Iercoşan and which belong to the Late Bronze Age, K. Kacsó has chosen some artefacts for publication[5].

In the fall of 1998, the river flood caused the left bank of the Crasna river to fail and the profile of the collapsed river levee (between the kilometre-stones 38/4-38/3) revealed new archaeological materials. By opening a research surface of 3x1,5 m one looked to rescue

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[1] Iercoşan 1992-1993, 82; Iercoşan 2002, Pl. 17/1-4-Tiszapolgár culture
[2] Pârvan 1926, 329; Roska 1942, 29-30 No. 7 Fig. 24; Bader 1978, pl. LXXXIX/2 – full bibliography
[3] Bader 1978, 119; Németi 1999, No. 70.c, p.84
[4] Iercoşan 1992, p. 82
[5] Kacsó 1997, 87, pl.5-8; 9/1-2; Kacsó 1999, Pl. 5-8; 9/1-2; Kacsó 1999a, 85-112

the area of the feature that came out of the riverside. It was observed that the river waters entered into a dwelling. At the depth of 1,2-1,3 m a clay floor was uncovered into the dwelling – fired and overlapped by a thin layer of ash and charcoal. That feature was slightly deepened into the antique coating plant and it had a clear outline, like a grey spot. The floor of the dwelling was superimposed by daub, probably from the collapsed wall. That layer overlapped a pit which was deepened into the clay stratum. The pit appears to have functioned as waste pit at first because its fill contained pottery fragments, animal bones and shells. The pit went 0,4 m below the room floor and had 1,6x1,4 m in dimensions. The ground surface of the dwelling was 14-15 cm thick and the archaeologists uncovered an area of 1,5-1,2 km long. Its inventory which was scattered among the daub pieces comprised several pottery fragments and two bronze needles.

The flood of 1999 also affected other areas situated on the left side of the Crasna river, situation in which was proceeded to new works of consolidation. The rescue excavations were carried out with the participation from the County Museum of Satu Mare of: Németi János (field supervisor), Szőcs Péter, museographer and Gindele Róbert, main researcher and field supervisor. In accordance with the research plan, surveys were made in several points in the left bank of the Crasna river: Acâs-Moara 39/7-38 km, Acâs-Râtul lui Veres 38/4-38/2 km, Acâs – Majtinyi tag 38/4-39/4 km, Acâs – Podul Dobrei 39/6-40/9 km, Supuru de Sus 52/3-52/4 km. At Acâs-Râtul lui Veres, the archaeological excavations were carried out in the surface between the channel of the Crasna river and the dam on the left riverside, where three long trenches were drawn having 45x2 m in dimensions, as well as two sections of 20x2 m each. In order to uncover the archaeological features that were identified, eight research cassettes were opened. In all have been rescued 2 dwellings, one bread baking oven, several hearths and 16 waste pits dating from different periods of time. It must be mentioned that the area under investigation was affected by works of embankment carried out between the years 1982 and 1983, which ended when the cultural layer was completely removed here and there and, consequently, several "modern pits" took shape. This way, the stratigraphic observations were made with difficulty, but they were clearer in the area close to the dam. We continue by mentioning that the surveys that were made outside the left levee of the Crasna river uncovered the ditches excavated by N. Iercoşan in 1983 marked with S.I and S.II (pit 1). Unfortunately the reference material is incomplete and the materials resulted from those surveys have been hosted by the Satu Mare County Museum and they are not available at the moment. It must be said that this place has been called by N. Iercoşan and C. Kacsó „Crasna veche" (so appears in technical literature) but the same place is called by villagers „Râtul lui Vereş" (Veres-rét).

Processing discoveries

The pottery lot that has been published by C. Kacsó (no inventory number) is likely to originate from the surface surveys carried out by N. Iercoşan or from the rescue excavations of 1983 (S.I and S.II – cultural layer). That material is culturally homogeneous and seems to had been collected from the area of the island that was affected by the works of embankment. The archaeological material is registered in the inventory record of the Municipal Museum of Carei within the numbers: 5618-5665; 6936-6971; 10 581-10 598 and 14 746-14 752 (SII/1983):

- tall footed vessel; semi-fine, brown paste. No. of inventory 14 747 (Pl. XIV/2).
- pot shard with flat rim; short neck; fine paste with slip; burnished; decorated by round impressions. No. of inventory 14 449 (Pl. XXII/8).
- pot shard with everted, flat rim; semi-fine paste; decorated by vertical, black fluting with burnished slip; fit with a fake handle. No. of inventory 27 789 (subsequently registered) (Pl. XXIII/1).
- body fragment, grey clay; semi-fine paste; decorated by wavy lines. No. of inventory 27 449 (Pl. XV/5).
- vessel fragment with flat rim; semi-fine paste; decorated by hatching. No inventory (Pl. XIV/5).

- grinder fragment; brick-red clay; semi-fine paste. No inventory (Pl. XXV/2).
- fragment of a mug foot, empty on the inside; grey clay, semi-fine paste. No. of inventory 27 470 (Pl. XIX/5).
- cup fragment; dark grey clay; fine paste; decorated by Suciu de Sus motifs, incisions-excisions. No. of inventory 27 470 (Pl. XVII/6).
- lobate rim fragment of a grey bowl; semi-fine paste; decorated by arches and hatching. No. of inventory 27 426 (Pl. XIV/1).
- jar-type vessel; conical; coarse paste; brick-red clay, tempered with medium-grained sand, decorated below the rim by fragments of socketed cordon displayed symmetrically; dimensions: 13,5 cm in height; 19 cm in rim diameter; 9,3 cm in base diameter. No inventory number (Pl. XIII/4).
- fragment of a small pot made of semi-fine, grey paste; decorated by hardly visible fluting. No. of inventory 14 746 (XIX/8).
- fragment of a small pot made of semi-fine paste, tempered with sand; decorated by strips of incised lines. No. of inventory 14 750 (Pl. XIX/10).
- handled mug of semi-fine paste, tempered with fine sand; decorated by oblique flutings (SII/Gr. 1). Dimensions: 8,5 cm high; 9 cm in rim diameter; 5 cm in base diameter. No inventory number (XIII/6).
- fragmentary vessel with everted rim; long neck; bulged body; flat base. The pot has handles and its rim is decorated by oblique, "wheat grain" type notches, the shoulder has two parallel, incised lines and the body depicts arches and hatching. Semi-fine paste; brown clay with grey inclusions. Dimensions: 12 cm high, 12 cm in rim diameter; 21 cm in body diameter; 9,5 cm in base diameter (SI/Gr.1). No inventory (Pl. XIII/5).
- mug made of coarse paste, tempered with crushed shards and coarse-grained river sand; brick-red coloured; the upper part is missing; dimensions: 11 cm in height (?); 7 cm in base diameter. No. of inventory 5659 (Pl. XIX/3).
- foot fragment of a portable cooking vessel. Thick walls, tempered with crushed shards, coarse paste; decorated in the stab-and-drag technique; brick-red clay; No. of inventory 27 422 (XXII/2).
- fragment of a vessel with flat, inverted rim; fine paste, tempered with cream, fine-grained sand; burnished; with the inverted rim decorated by notches, and the everted side of the rim rim decorated by arches and hatching. No. of inventory 14 753 (Pl. XIV/6).

In the period between 1982 and 1983, I (Németi) found several pottery fragments in the collapsed bank of the "Old Crasna" river, in the low-landed gardens in the last street:

- fragment of a cup with bulged body; flat base; semi-fine, grey paste. Dimensions: 3,8 cm high; rim diameter of 8 cm. No. of inventory 20 779 (Pl. XII/5).
- mug shard with slightly everted rim; semi-fine paste; cream clay; decorated by double, incised lines. No. of inventory 20 778 (XIV/4).
- body-vessel shard made of semi-fine paste, tempered with river sand; decorated by incised, double lines. No. of inventory 29 080 (Pl. XII/7).
- bowl shard tempered with fine, grey sand; decorated by arches and hachure on the outside. No. of inventory 29 079 (Pl. XIII/3).
- fragment of a bowl with lobate rim; semi-fine paste; the rim is decorated by "wheat grain"-shaped sockets, arches and hatching. No. of inventory 29 081(Pl. XXV/7).
- vessel base; semi-fine paste; decorated by incised lines shaping arcades and hatching. No. of inventory 29 082 (Pl. XXV/3).
- pot shard; brown-cream clay; notched rim; cylindrical neck; decorated by incised hatching. No. of inventory 29 083 (Pl. XXV/7).
- fragment of a large-sized vessel; coarse paste, tempered with crushed shards; decorated beneath the broken handle by a motif shaping a "moustache". No. of inventory 27 994 (Pl. XII/6).

A test pit (S.Ia) was opened on a 12x2 m surface in the bank of the Old Crasna river during the excavations of 2000. After eliminating the coating plant from the trampled

surface (depth of plough 0-0,25 m), one cultural layer was revealed and had 0,25-0,30 cm in thickness. This trench uncovered a level of charred remains that belonged to a hearth which enabled the formation of a crust. The rescued pottery material was rather poor in forms and decorations and it is identical with the material presented above. It is probably a settlement of the Middle Bronze Age, the Otomani culture - the final phase with specific elements of the Otomani III.a period – which existed in this area between the gardens of the last street and the mill.

Archaeological investigations dating from the year 2000 (Pl.III-IX)

SI. (A+B+C+D) are assumed by cassette A/1998 which uncovered vertical stratigraphy as this is a less disturbed area: 0-0,15 m of the present coating plant, 0,15-0,35 m of cultural layer, roughly unitary that contained pottery shards, daub pieces and fired clay, dating from the Bronze Age; 0,35/0,40 – 0,55 m of antique coating plant with depositions of the Eneolithical Age (Copper Age III) that comprised pottery shards specific of the Coţofeni/Baden culture, that superimposed a sandy clay loam devoid of archaeological traces. This trench revealed pits no. 1 and 3 with scanty Bronze Age materials in their content. Pit no. 3 was barrel-like shaped, its mouth was 0,80 m wide, the lower part grew narrower until it reached a base of 0,75 m in diameter and went 0,40 m below the Eneolithical level, reaching the maximum depth of 1,25 m (below the present trampled surface). The left side of the profile, at 0,40-0,50 m in depth, unearthed charred remains with much daub spread over an area of 1,20 – 2 m long. These charred remains probably belonged to a construction (dwelling?) dating from the Bronze Age. Pit no. 1 was largely destroyed when Crasna riverside collapsed. A handled cup was recovered from the content of the pit, from among ash, daub pieces and charcoal. With no connection to the charred remains mentioned above, the floor of a dwelling appeared extended towards the stream channel. Cassette B had 4x3 m in size and uncovered dwelling L1. This discovery contained manual wheel-made pottery, grey coloured and probably dating from the 8^{th} -9^{th} centuries (King Karol's Age). Pit no. 4 with grey fill was beehive-shaped and contained pottery shards of the Late Bronze Age. Pit 4a took shape in the left side profile of the trench. It had grey fill with pottery fragments among which was found a bronze piece that had been fired and melted. Close to pit 4a was noticed a smooth layer of daub, that probably belonged to a Late Bronze Age dwelling. Pits 8, 8a were identified in an area dropping into a slope to the level of the yellow clay and were grey-coloured with few pottery shards. Pits 9 and 9a go below the cultural layer, into the yellow clay that contained scanty archaeological materials. Feature 10 appeared like a pottery pile at 20-25 cm in depth, at the level of the cultural layer of the Late Bronze Age. In the same place also occurred daub fragments, and a smooth deposition, likely to originate from a construction.

SII. The Coating plant and most of the cultural layer were sloping and hardly 0,10-0,15 m have been preserved. The left side of the profile registered pits no. 5 and 7. Pit no. 5 was funnel-like shaped. From its narrow mouth of 0,75 cm in diameter, the pit slightly grew wider towards the base where it reached a diameter of 1,20 m at a depth of 1,05 m. The dark fill contained pottery shards, pieces of stone and fragments of fired clay. Pit no. 7 in the left side of the profile was 1,60 m long; at the depth of 0,65-0,70 m it had a small step and went as deep as 1,5 m. The pit bases had been perfectly smoothed, both had had the role of storage pits at first, later on became garbage pits. SII. C+D and cassette K were drawn in an area largely affected by levees, so that features and pits no. 11, 11a, 11b and 11c formed a grey spot. They hardly contained several pottery shards and animal bones. Pit 11b, 2,55 m wide, likely belonged to a modern pit. Pit no. 12 appeared at the level of the antique coating plant and contained pottery shards of the Coţofeni/Baden culture. Pit no. 13a and trench VI assume a modern pit with the garbage remains revealing wire rope, fragments of iron blades etc. Pit no. 13 was 1,48 m wide within its profile, 1,17 m deep, with perfectly smooth base that contained ash, daub, charcoal and pottery shards. At first, it used to be a storage pit and then it was used as garbage pit. Pit no. 2 appeared first in the profile of S.2b and has been opened through cassette C. It had been oval and had 1,65x1,35 m in size, 1,10 m in depth. The pit was

superimposed by a daub deposition and many pottery shards of the Celtic La Tène type. This pit registered several successive depositions comprising of vessel shards which have largely been restored. The first deposition appeared at 0,14-0,15 m below level LT. and comprised of large shards from a large-sized vessel and a cup. The second level showed up at 0,35 m deep and was 0,40 m thick. It comprised of several fragmentary vessels and large pieces of the storage vessels mentioned above. The third deposition appeared at 0,70 m in depth and comprised of several mug type vessels, cups, "fish tray"-like vessel, several types of tureens covered by large fragments from the storage vessels. At a depth of 0,90 m the coating plant and the deposition from the Baden/Coţofeni were cut into, at 1,10 m the base of the pit appeared perfectly flat, clayed, with a thick layer of ash and charcoal. Besides these, there were also daub fragments and a large shard of a portable-cooking vessel. The way the depositions were arranged in pit 2 attest a magic-ritual deposition, a deposition of the type 'bodgros' (cassette C had 2,4x1,2 m in Sizes, crossing also SV).

SIV. It has been investigated beyond the levee, on the right side, on the way to the commune. It was 10x2 m in size, 0,80 m in depth, roughly oriented east-west, on the old river course of Crasna river. Observations in stratigraphy: at 0-0,15/0,20 m in depth is the present coating plant; at 0,20-0,35 m in depth was a black coloured deposition with many pottery shards and animal bones; at a depth between 0,30-0,50 m occurred a grey-coloured deposition containing fluffy soil, pottery fragments specific of the Ottomany culture, phase III; at 0,25-0,70 m deep was the antique coating plant with inclusions of fired clay and pottery fragments of the Coţofeni/Baden type. At about 0,80-0,85 appeared the sandy yellow loam. The trench profile revealed a small pot with scanty Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţi materials (Gr. 16c), which has not been dug out because the existence of an earth road. Pit no. 16 has been observed in the trench profile, and has been by cassette D of 3x1,2 m in size. The completely opened pit contained much ash, animal bones, and pottery shards made with the slow wheel, typical of the 11^{th}-12^{th} centuries – the Age of Arpad. The pit was dug up from another pit that contained pottery shards of the Bronze Age (Gr. 16a). There was another pit in the trench profile (Gr. 16b) which contained typical pottery shards of the Late phase of the Ottomany culture.

SV. The trench was drawn in an area nearby the dam. It had a recent deposition of 0,30-0,40 m thick. This way could be observed the first layer of coating plant, below which was a layer of charred remains of 5-10 cm and much ash, fragments of fired clay and pottery shards of the Age of Arpad. This level might be related to a strong fire, maybe the invasion of the Tartars which left the village destroyed. At the same level showed up a bread oven with heavily fired base that superimposed a layer of pottery shards meant to isolate, typical of the 11^{th} -13^{th} centuries. By the oven was discovered a small pit, uncovered through cassette N in which was found a dog skeleton. The SV.D profile revealed a semi-subterranean dwelling in cassette E, which dated back to the 6^{th}-7^{th} centuries (L2-Slav), fit with an oven that held 'Tonbrote breads' in it. In the dwelling was outlined pit no. 15 with much ash and many pottery shards of the 11^{th}-13^{th} centuries. This pit was closely related to the bread oven mentioned above.

SVII. It had 10x2 m in size, 0,65-0,70 cm the maximum diameter, located nearby SIV, on the bank of a completely disturbed area. The Late Bronze Age cultural layer occurred below the present humus, at 10-15 cm deep. It was a black-coloured deposition, roughly 15-20 in thickness and contained pottery shards of the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţi type. Below this cultural layer appeared a grey deposition of 25-40 cm in thickness that contained pottery fragments dating from the Middle Bronze Age, the Late Ottomany culture. At the level of the antique coating plant layer was noticed a small feature that contained daub or rather fired clay (hearth?) with few pottery shards of the Coţofeni type. In SVII, nearby the collapsed riverside, appeared a pit with pottery shards, large pieces of stone, the traces of an oven which was uncovered in cassette M (2x1 m) that contained pottery shards of the 7^{th} -8^{th} centuries (?). In

the area of the sections IV and VII was identified a section of 1 m wide, probably one of those investigated by N. Iercoşan in 1983.

Presentation of the 2000 year discoveries

This presentation deals with Bronze Age discoveries. Pit No. 2 of SII. (Cas. C-SV.), pit content:

1. large-sized, tub-shaped vessel made of coarse paste, tempered with crushed shards; smooth on the outside; thick, grey body with dark inclusions. The vessel is decorated by six crested handle buttons and six crested knobs. The vessel is fragmentary, but the drawing depicts it restored. Dimensions: rim diameter of 72 cm; 48 cm high; base diameter of 23 cm, 24 cm in body diameter. No. of inventory 29 791 (Pl. XII/1). This vessel occurred scanty among the Late Bronze Age discoveries, but it compares well with the vessel found at Petea-Csengersima[6].

2. large-sized fragmentary vessel (the base and the lower part were corrupted and re-fired); brown-reddish clay with large, grey spots. The vessel has a broad everted rim, cylindrical neck, well distinguished from the slightly bulged body. The vessel is made of semi-fine paste, tempered with fine sand. The neck is decorated by small, tapered buttons; the body is provided with fluting knobs, semi-circular, framed by vertical protruding cordons. This decoration comes symmetrically recurrent, namely four knobs and four protruding cordons. Dimensions: 26 cm of the rim diameter, 36-40 cm in height (?); base diameter of 20 cm (?). No. of inventory 28 792 (Pl. X/3). This amphora type of vessel with two broad handles is well known among the discoveries made at Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ[7], this variant without handles appeared at Berveni[8], Valea lui Mihai – Groapa Noua de Lut (unpublished discovery), Tăşnad-Sere (parking), a discovery of 2009 gr. 193/A. It compares well with Petea-Csengersima[9], Nyíregyháza – Úr-csere[10].

3. fragment of a bowl with inverted rim and small knobs coming out of the rim, laid symmetrically. Semi-fine paste; brown-reddish with grey spots; tempered with fine sand. Dimensions: 12 cm in rim diameter. No. of inventory 28 793 (Pl. XI/3). This type of bowl is frequent in the Late Ottomany culture and appears under the influence of the Tumulus culture from Carei-Bobald[11]. The bowl-tureen type of vessel appears at Berveni, in the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ culture[12], Tăşnad-Sere – parking (unpublished).

4. fragment of a vessel foot (jar?), slightly concave; made of homogeneous paste; tempered with fine, brown-reddish sand. Dimensions: base diameter of 10 cm; No. of inventory 28 794, (Pl. X/5).

5. fragment of a portable cooking vessel; brick-red clay with black inclusions; made of coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; rim diameter: 40 cm; No. of inventory 29 795 (Pl. XI/5); it is a frequent vessel among the discoveries made at Pişcolt-Cehăluţ.

6. rim fragment of a large-sized storage vessel; everted and flat; made of semi-fine paste; tempered with river sand; orange clay; re-fired; decorated with horizontal, narrow fluting on the outside, below the rim; No. of inventory 28 796, (Pl. XI/1).

7. round, stone bowl, probably used for crushing pottery (crushed shards); maximum diameter: 6,2 cm, No. of inventory 28 797.

8. fragmentary bowl with slightly lobate rim; made of fine paste; tempered with sand; orange on the inside and on the outside; burnished slip on the outside; decorated by lime inlays. The lobate rim is crested; the body is divided by vertical and horizontal stripes that comprise of incised circles framed by two incised lines filled with parallel lines in-between. The vessel base is decorated by smaller circles placed cross-like. This is a recurrent motif on the vessel body and the space in-between the horizontal stripes is decorated by spiral ends. The vessel was made with special care. Dimensions: height: 16 cm; rim diameter: 21 cm (?); base diameter: 9 cm. No. of inventory 28 798 (Pl. X/6). Bowls with inverted and lobate rim already appeared in the Ottomany

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[6] Marta 2009, Pl. 40/16
[7] Németi 2009, fig. 2/1-3; *Idem* 2009a, Pl. I/1-3
[8] Németi 1990, fig. 1/7
[9] Marta 2009, Pl. 16/2
[10] Bejinariu et col. 2009, Pl. IV/1, V/3, IX/1; *Idem* 2009, Pl. IV/4, VII/3, XV/1
[11] Németi-Molnár 2007, 234
[12] Németi 1990, fig. I/9

culture, in the final phase. The disposal of the motifs based on the patterns below the rim and on the body point to a tradition dating from the Wittenberg culture. There is no analogy known for this vessel, but we assume, based on shape and decoration, that it is a mixture of the Late Ottomany and Wittenberg cultures.

9. fragmentary bowl with everted rim, semi-fine paste, tempered with fine, river sand, brownish on the outside and burnished slip on the inside; carefully made. The bowl is decorated by small pointed knobs and symmetrical small handles, surrounded by semi-circular fluting and three round sockets standing as pyramids. Sizes: mouth diameter: 16 cm; height: 6,5 cm; base diameter: 6 cm; no. of inventory: 28 799 (Pl. XI/2). The bowl is specific of the Late Ottomany culture, it is a variant of the 'Swedish helmet' type.

10. cup with grey handle both on the internal side and on the outside; made of fine pottery; tempered with sand; the well distinguishing neck below the handle is decorated by two small sockets; the base is decorated by five groups of sockets, each socket containing two dimples. Sizes: mouth diameter: 8,2 cm; base diameter: 3 cm; height: 7,5 cm. No. of inventory: 10 884, (Pl. X/2).

11. 'fish pan' vessel, fragmentary, grey-coloured, semi-fine paste; no decoration; carefully made. Sizes: mouth diameter: 20 cm; base diameter: 15 cm; height: 4 cm. No. of inventory: 10 886, (Pl. XI/4).

12. lip shard of a jar-like vessel; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; decorated by fragments of socketed belt below the rim; no. of inventory: 28 800, (Pl. XI/6).

13. clay weigh fragments; coarse pottery tempered with crushed shards; perforated in the upper part. No. of inventory: 28 811-812, (Pl. XII/2-3);

14. biconical cup, probably with upraised handle, short neck, decorated by four incised lines; oblique fluting on the body. Fine paste, brown-reddish clay tempered with fine sand. Sizes: mouth diameter: 10 cm; height: 4,5 cm; body diameter: 3 cm; no. of inventory: 27 984, (Pl. X/1).

15. fragment of flat rim, heavily everted, belonging to a storage vessel; orange clay with grey inclusions. No. of inventory: 28 796, (Pl. X/2).

16. pot fragment, with brown-orange rim and body; grey inclusions; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand of fine grained structure. The neck distinguishes well from the body; it is marked by round impressions; the body is decorated by spiral ends which depicted a small knob. The decoration comprised of shallow fluting. Sizes: mouth diameter: 24 cm; no. of inventory: 28 010, (Pl. XII/4).

- Fragmentary, shallow bowl; dark-grey clay; fine paste tempered with fine sand; carefully made with burnished slip. The vessel is decorated by small knobs surrounded by semicircular, narrow fluting. The vessel base is decorated by concentric circles, with fluting; small sockets below the rim, either single or grouped. Sizes: mouth diameter: 12 cm; height: 4 cm; base diameter: 4,5 cm; no. of inventory. (Pl. XVIII/4).
- Mug; brown clay with grey spots; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; secondary fired; four lobes pulled out of the rim; two knob handles. Sizes: belly diameter: 10 cm; height: 8,5 cm; base diameter: 6 cm. No. of inventory: 10 887. Similarities are to be found at Petea-Csengersima[13], (Pl. XVIII/3).
- Restored mug from SI/Gr. 1, discovered at 0,10 m in depth; made of semi-fine paste; brown clay with grey inclusions. The vessel neck distinguishes well from the body; it is fit with a huge, wide handle with a small knob in the upper part. It lacks decoration, but it wears the traces of a secondary firing. Sizes: rim diameter: 13 cm; height: 10 cm; base diameter: 5,5 cm; no. of inventory: 10 882, (Pl. XIV/10).
- Fragment of a deep tureen; grey clay; slightly inverted rim; decorated by small, conical knobs, symmetrically placed. Semi-fine paste tempered with sand; rim diameter: 26 cm; no. of inventory: 27 927, (Pl. XVIII/2).
- Cup shard; grey clay; fine, burnished pottery tempered with fine sand; the straight neck is decorated by parallel, incised lines; the biconical body is decorated by incised lines and small knobs. No. of inventory: 28 109, (Pl. XXVII/1).

[13] Marta 2009 Pl. 1, pots-1 Ba – classified as Suciu de Sus vessel

- Cup shard; grey clay, burnished; fine paste tempered with fine sand; biconical body; the straight neck is decorated by parallel, incised lines; the edge of the body is decorated by small knobs. No. of inventory: 29 090, (Pl. XXVI/5).
- Cup shard; grey clay; decorated by spirals and excised motifs; typical motifs of the Suciu de Sus culture, the full-developed stage. No. of inventory: 27 906; (Pl. XVII/3).
- Pottery shards of various vessels decorated by typical motifs of the Suciu de Sus culture. No. of inventory: 29 089-29 091, 27 894, (Pl. XVII/2, 4-5).
- Fragments of unknown artefacts made of fired clay; brick-red - reddish clay; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards or coarse-grained sand. Flat or round, they were usually discovered in the cultural layer; no. of inventory: 27 813, 29 092-93, 28 344, 28 621, 27 852, 29 054, 28 950, (Pl. XVI/6-10).
- Needle mould valves, shaped of fired clay, with an intense brick-red colour; fine paste tempered with fine sand. No. of inventory: 28 068-69, (Pl. XVI/2-3)
- Mould valve made of limy stone, discovered in S3; worked out on both surfaces, likely to had been used in casting needles (?). Sizes: length: 12 cm, width: 3 cm, thickness: 2 cm. No. of inventory: 28 092 (Pl. XVI/1). A close similarity of it is to be found at Lăpuş[14].
- Cart wheel shard, decorated on both sides by shallow fluting. Diameter: 7 cm; thickness: 0,90 cm; no. of inventory: 27 995, (Pl. XXI/8).
- Ash cap shard; brick-red clay with black inclusions; made of fine paste, tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 28 149 (Pl. XVIII/5). This type of vessel is often met in the Ottomany culture, in all stages of development and was probably inherited by the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ group.
- Sandstone grinder; maximum diameter: 14 cm, thickness: 3,5 cm. No. of inventory: 29 087, (Pl. XXIV/8).
- Small strainer; brick-red coloured; semi-fine paste tempered with sand and grog, perforated base; height: 4,2 cm, mouth diameter: 8 cm; base diameter: 6 cm. No. of inventory: 26 327, (Pl. XXII/6).
- Fragmentary lid; tempered with fine sand; cream clay; perforated at its edge; thin walls; maximum diameter: 8 cm; no. of inventory: 28 331, (Pl. XXIII/8).
- Small, fragmentary pot; brown-grey clay; fine paste tempered with sand; the neck distinguishes well from the body; the base is decorated by a slightly concave circle. The rim is crested; the body is decorated by double, incised lines, the neck base is decorated by parallel lines. Sizes: height: 10 cm; mouth diameter: 16 cm, base diameter (Standring): 3 cm; no. of inventory: 27 952, (Pl. XX/4).
- Fragment of a handled mug; dark grey clay; decorated by double incised lines; no. of inventory: 28 991, (Pl. XIX/1).
- Fragment from the body of a large-sized pot; grey clay; decorated by incised lines. Semi-fine paste tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 28 002, (Pl. XIV/7).
- Fragment of a barrel-like vessel; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand. It is decorated by arcades and parallel lines below the rim and in the lower part of the vessel. Sizes: mouth diameter: 4 cm; height: 5,2 cm recovered material, no inventory number, (Pl. XIV/7).
- Fragment of thick soldering made of fired, brick-red clay; flat base and lobate upper part. On the outside, it has a thin, scaled soldering. These large-sized fragments were probably meant to decorate the chime of a hearth or rather the outer wall of a building. No. of inventory: 10 584, (Pl. XXI/4).
- Cup shard; grey clay; fine paste; thin walls; decorated by double incised lines and parallel lines. No. of inventory: 27 993, (Pl. XIV/8).
- Cup shard; brown-reddish clay; fine paste decorated by strips of incised lines. Mouth diameter: 6 cm. No. of inventory: 27 991, (Pl. XVII/8).
- Body shard; coarse paste; light clay; big holes perforated in it; probably originating from a portable cooking vessel. No. of inventory: 27 992, (Pl. XXII/3).

[14] Kacsó 1998, P. H13

- Body fragment of a large-sized vessel; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand and black, burnished grog on the outside and brick-red – reddish on the inside; decorated by horizontal fluting in the upper side, wide, oblique fluting on the body (bichrome painted shard–black–brick-red). No. of inventory: 27 982, (Pl. XXVI/2).
- Tureen shard: lip and body; brown clay with smoky inclusions; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by knobs and narrow, semi-circular fluting below the rim. Sizes: height: 8 cm; no. of inventory: 28 012, (Pl. XXIV/4).
- Body fragment of a large-sized vessel; orange on both inside and outside; semi-fine paste tempered with grog; decorated by a pressed out button with dense, semi-circular fluting (wearing traces of secondary firing). No. of inventory: 27 983, (Pl. XXVI/3).
- Body shard of a tureen (?); fine, burnished, black clay; decorated by a knob surrounded by narrow fluting. No. of inventory: 27 985, (Pl. XV/4).
- Large-sized vessel shard, biconical, black on the outside and brick-red on the inside (bichrome painted pottery); semi-fine paste tempered with crushed shards; decorated by oblique fluting. No. of inventory: 26 627, (Pl. XXVII/8).
- Tureen shard; grey clay; internally bevelled rim; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand. Rim diameter: 16 cm. No. of inventory: 27 837, (Pl. XXII/5).
- Rim shard; everted; flat; brown clay; semi-fine, homogeneous paste, tempered with fine sand; brown on the outside with a thin layer of slip, the inside appears like painted in red. No. of inventory: 29 084, (Pl. XV/10).
- Rim shard of a pot; fine paste tempered with sand; red on the outside and decorated by horizontal fluting on the inside. No. of inventory: 28 007, (Pl. XVI/8).
- Tureen shard; everted rim; orange clay; semi-fine paste decorated by a knob and semi-circular fluting. No. of inventory: 28 008, (Pl. XX/2).
- Tureen shard; grey on the inside and brown on the outside; with smoky inclusions; burnished neck. Semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by punched impressions; the body is decorated by dense, vertical fluting. No. of inventory: 27 788, (Pl. XV/6).
- Small tureen with everted rim; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; the base of the neck is decorated by a small knob. Mouth diameter: 15,5 cm. No. of inventory: 28 317, (Pl. XX/4).
- Tureen shard: rim and body; heavily everted rim; fine-quality paste; black clay (fired in reducing athmosphere); fine slip on the outside; decorated by a knob and dense, semi-circular fluting. No. of inventory: 27 961, (Pl. XV/3).
- Everted rim of a large-sized pot; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand and grog. The flat rim is decorated by fluting. No. of inventory: 28 050, (Pl. XXVII/5).
- Pot shard; blackish on the outside and grey on the inside; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; decorated by horizontal, wavy lines and beams of vertical, parallel lines. No. of inventory: 27 912, (Pl. XXII/7).
- Vessel shard: rim and body; coarse paste; thick walls, brick-red coloured; decorated below the rim with a socketed belt. No. of inventory: 29 000, (Pl. XXI/1).
- Fragment of a flat rim and body shard of a jar-type vessel; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; with crested rim and socketed belt below the rim. No. of inventory: 28 601, (Pl. XXI/2).
- Handle fragment (mug); grey clay; fine paste; decorated by parallel, wavy lines. No. of inventory: 27 449, (Pl. XIV/2).
- Pot fragment: neck and body; burnished cream-brown clay; fine paste tempered with fine sand, decorated on the neck with vertical fluting and round sockets and zig-zag incised lines on the body. No. of inventory: 28 024, (Pl. XXV/5).
- Large-sized vessel shard with everted rim; grey clay; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; thick walls; decorated by 'cockscomb'. No. of inventory: 28 026, (Pl. XIX/6).
- Small sized, biconical cup; black clay; fine paste tempered with fine sand; short neck decorated by parallel lines and the body is decorated by oblique fluting. No. of inventory: 27 906, (Pl. XXVIII/7).

- Cup lacking decoration; semi-fine paste; reddish clay; base diameter: 3 cm, recovered material. No inventory number, (Pl. XIII/2).
- Small-sized pot; dark grey clay; well distinguishing neck from the body; bulged body decorated by vertical fluting. No. of inventory: 14 746, (Pl. XXVII/4).
- Tureen shard with everted and slightly lobate rim; blackish clay; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand. Rim diameter: 25 cm, height: 13 cm (?). No inventory number, (Pl. XV/2).
- Rim shard of a large-sized storage vessel; coarse paste; grey-brown clay with black inclusions tempered with crushed shards; heavily bevelled rim; thick walls. No. of inventory: 28 576, (Pl. XXVI/1).
- Fragmentary tureen; brown-orange clay with smoky inclusions; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; short neck, well distinguishing from the body; the base has a pushed out knob decorated by circular fluting. Dimensions: mouth diameter: 26 cm, height: 8,5 cm, base diameter: 8 cm. No. of inventory: 28 018, (Pl. XX/5).
- Pot shard: body; cream on the outside and grey on the inside; semi-fine paste tempered with grog; decorated by wide fluting with dense fluting in between. No. of inventory: 27 862, (Pl. XXVII/6).
- Mug shard: rim and neck; grey clay; fine paste tempered with fine sand; decorated by horizontal, narrow fluting; mouth diameter: 12 cm. No. of inventory: 28 166, (Pl. XV/5).
- Jar-type vessel shard; brown – brick-red clay; decorated by crested cordon; coarse paste tempered with river sand. No. of inventory: 27 899 (Pl. XVII/10).
- Handled cup shard; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; the edge of the handle is decorated by a small knob. No. of inventory: 28 003, (Pl. XVII/1).
- Small sized vessel shard; secondary fired; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; internally bevelled rim decorated by fingerprints; thick wall perforated several times; probably belonged to a lid (?). No. of inventory: 27 992, (Pl. XVII/7).
- Similar shard with the previous described, but smaller; internally bevelled rim; oblique fluting on the exterior. Coarse paste tempered with crushed shards, perforated, thick wall; probably was a lid (?). No. of inventory: 28 752, (Pl. XIII/1).
- Fragment of a portable cooking vessel; brick-red clay tempered with crushed shards; decorated with fingerprints on the edge of the foot. No. of inventory: 27 741, (Pl. XXII/1).
- Fragments of a cup; grey-brown clay; decorated by dense fluting; the base is marked by small sockets; fine paste tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 28 745, (Pl. XIV/7).
- Pot shard; black on the outside and brown – brick-red on the inside; semi-fine paste tempered with coarse-grained sand; devoid of decoration. Base diameter: 8 cm; present height: 11 cm. No. of inventory: 28 137, (Pl. XIX/2).
- Cart wheel fragment; brick-red clay; lacks decoration; semi-fine paste; diameter: 5 cm; thickness: 0,8 cm. No. of inventory: 27 996, (Pl. XXI/9).
- Pot shard; slightly everted rim; cream-orange clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by arches, parallel lines and three grouped sockets. No. of inventory: 27 800, (Pl. XXIII/2).
- Body vessel shard; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; punctate decoration shaping triangles. No. of inventory: 28 159, (Pl. XXIII/4).
- Pot shard: rim and body; dark-grey clay; decorated by a knob and vertical fluting; semi-fine paste tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 28 095, (Pl. XIX/9).
- Body vessel shard; brown on the outside and brick-red on the inside; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; decorated by parallel, incised lines and a large socket flanked by incised punching. No inventory number, (Pl. XXIII/7).
- Tureen shard; slightly lobate rim; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand. No inventory number, (Pl. XIX/7).
- Vessel shard: rim and body; cream clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decoration: incised lines shaping arches and parallel lines. No. of inventory: 28 279, (Pl. XXIII/5).
- Flat rim shard of a large-sized pot; black clay; burnished grey on the inside; semi-fine paste tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 29 073, (Pl. XVIII/1).

- Jar-type vessel shard: rim and body; decorated by a crested button; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; brick-red clay with smoky inclusions. No. of inventory: 27 455, (Pl. XVIII/7).
- Strainer shard; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; brick-red clay. No. of inventory: 27 456, (Pl. XXI/7).
- Bowl shard: rim and body; inverted rim; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; mouth diameter: 16 cm. No. of inventory: 27 837, (Pl. XIX/4).
- Cup shard; black on the outside and grey on the inside. Fine paste tempered with sand; lacks decoration. No. of inventory: 29 078, (Pl. XIV/3).
- Tureen shard with grey handle; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; mouth diameter: 16 cm; height: 4 cm; base diameter: 10 cm. No. of inventory: 27 884, (Pl. XVII/6).
- Handled tureen shard; brick-red clay; semi-fine paste tempered with crushed shards. No. of inventory: 27 811, (Pl. XV/9).
- Wide handle shard; grey paste; decorated by incised lines. No. of inventory: 28 198, (Pl. XXIV/4).
- Handled cup shard; decorated by incised lines. No. of inventory: 27 446, (Pl. XXIV/2-3).
- Vessel base; blackish clay; decorated by incised motifs. No. of inventory: 27 887, (Pl. XXIV/5).
- Vessel base; grey clay; decorated by spirals. No inventory number, (Pl. XXIV/6).
- Body shard; brick-red clay; coarse paste tempered with sand and crushed shards; decorated by a flattened button. No. of inventory: 27 880, (Pl. XX/7).
- Rim and body shard of a tureen; yellowish on the outside and brown on the inside; fine paste tempered with sand. No. of inventory: 20 764, (Pl. XXV/4).
- Pot shard; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by a knob surrounded by narrow fluting. No. of inventory: 29 095, (Pl. XXVI/6).
- Pot shard; orange clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by a knob surrounded by narrow fluting flanked by punched impressions. No. of inventory: 26 696, (Pl. XIX/11).
- Jar-type vessel shard; brick-red clay; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; decorated by crested cordon. No. of inventory: 28 601, (Pl. XXI/3).
- Base and body shard of a grey pot; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; decorated in the lower part by small impressions, between two parallel, zig-zaged, incised lines continuing with lines coming out from small sockets (Wiettenberg culture, phase IV). No. of inventory: 27 959, (Pl. XX/6)
- Tureen shard: everted rim and body; light brown on the outside; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; with decorated interior and exterior by incised lines and wheat grain impressions (Wiettenberg culture, phase IV). No. of inventory: 27 951, (Pl. XXIII/3)
- Disc-headed, bronze needle; 7,5 cm long; head diameter: 8 mm. No. of inventory: 27 731, (Pl. XXVI/5).
- Globular-headed, bronze needle; 10,5 cm long, head diameter: 4 mm. No. of inventory: 27 730, (Pl. XXVI/4).
- Fired clay weigh; pyramid shaped; perforated in the upper part; miniature; height: 5,2 cm, base diameter: 3 cm. No. of inventory: 28 625, (Pl. XXV/9).
- Small, fragmentary pot; black on the outside and grey on the inside; fine paste tempered with fine sand; decorated by wide, vertical fluting and narrow, vertical fluting; mouth diameter: 12 cm; height: 6,5 cm. No. of inventory: 28 423, (Pl. XXV/10).
- Cup shard; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated on the body by punched impressions; mouth diameter: 13 cm. No. of inventory: 28 211. (Pl. XXV/11).
- Mug shard; slightly everted rim; black burnished clay on the outside and brick-red on the inside (fired in oxidizing atmosphere). Fine paste tempered with sand; the outer red section revealed a bi-chrome slip; mouth diameter: 9 cm; height: 6,5 cm. No. of inventory: 28 212, (Pl. XV/12).

- Biconical cup shard; grey clay; short neck; decorated by parallel lines and dim fluting; fine paste tempered with fine sand. No. of inventory: 28 075, (Pl. XXVII/3).
- Cup shard with brick-red handle; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards. No. of inventory: 27 884, (Pl. XXIV/1).
- Large-sized storage vessel shard: rim and body; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; decorated by small sockets, narrow fluting flanked by two sockets. No. of inventory: 28 010, (Pl. XXIV/9).
- Jar-type vessel shard: rim and body; brick-red clay; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; decorated by a knob. No. of inventory: 28 400, (Pl. XXI/5).
- Ash cap shard; brick-red clay with smoky inclusions. No. of inventory: 28 775, (Pl. XXI/6).
- Pot base shard; brown-cream clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by incised lines shaping pointed arches in the lower part. No. of inventory: 27 897, (Pl. XXIII/6).
- Base and body shard; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; grey clay; the base is surrounded by wide fluting. No. of inventory: 27 894, (Pl. XVIII/8).
- Vessel body shard; brown-yellow clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by strips of parallel and vertical lines. No. of inventory: 27 873, (Pl. XXII/4).
- Pot shard: base and body; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; lacks decoration. No. of inventory: 27 837, (Pl. XVII/9).
- Shard of biconical vessel; grey clay; decorated by narrow fluting, both vertical and horizontal; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; No. of inventory: 28 076, (Pl. XX/1).
- Body shard of a portable cooking vessel; coarse paste tempered with crushed shards; grey-brown clay; decorated by horizontal fluting. No. of inventory: 27 963, (Pl. XX/3).
- Tureen shard: rim and body; grey clay; semi-fine paste tempered with sand; decorated by a knob surrounded by narrow fluting. No. of inventory: 29 097, (Pl. XXV/8).
- Tureen shard with handle and lobate, grey rim; semi-fine paste tempered with crushed shards and sand. No. of inventory: 28 554, (Pl. XVII/1).
- Rim shard of a brown-cream pot tempered with sand and grog; lacks decoration. No. of inventory: 28 748, (Pl. XV/1).
- Body shard of a light grey pot; semi-fine paste tempered with river sand; decorated between two parallel lines by a network lines motif (probably originates from a Wiettenberg vessel), No inventory number, (Pl. XV/11).

Cultural and chronological dating

The stratigraphic observations drawn from SII, SIV, SV and SVII excavated in the old Crasna river bank, clearly show a recent deposition, disturbed, which uncovered archaeological materials dating to different ages. Other two cultural layers laid below it, one was darker in colour and one was grey. Both are depositions of the Middle and Late Bronze Ages. Although the entire area was significantly disturbed by the embankment works, the archaeological features (waste pits, storage pits, piles of pottery and daub fragments, artefacts from the cultural layer) allow us to distinguish three habitation levels dating from the Bronze Age.

A. Pottery dating from the end of the Ottomani culture
B. Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţi pottery
C. Pre-Gáva (Gáva1) pottery

A. Fine and semi-fine pottery (sand river temper, good firing in oxidizing or reducing atmosphere), often with slipped surfaces. The most frequent forms were: jugs, handled cups, large-sized or small storage vessels, bowls and tureens, portable cooking vessels, strainers, ash caps. Decorations consisted of incised lines shaping arches and dashed triangles, small sockets, oblique fluting, spirals ending in knobs (spiral ends). Coarse pottery was made of mixed paste with crushed shards, low-level firing in oxidizing atmosphere; grey coloured; socketed belt, crested knob and scanty stab and dragged motif.

This pottery type compares well with the Ottomani IIIa, b discoveries (Bobald phase), typical containers of the Koszider type. The storage vessel fragment (Pl. XII/6) which was decorated by the 'moustache' motif has analogies in Carei-Bobald I[15], Lăpuşel[16], Csengersima-Petea[17] and was dated to the Suciu de Sus culture, phase I. The pottery was decorated by double incised spirals, dashed triangles (PL. XII/7; XII/3,5; XIV/1,4-8; XX/4), the jugs and cups were decorated by fluting (Pl. XII/5; XIII/4; XIII/6; XIV/3-4; XVIII/5; XXI/1-3, 7; XXII/2-3; XXIII/2,4,6-7; XXV/3).

Except Carei-Bobald I and VI[18] we also found this type of pottery at Carei–Spitz-Canal VI (unknown material), Moftinu Mic–Drumul Naţional Carei-Satu Mare[19]; Medieşu-Aurit–Dâmbul Acastăului-tumulus[20]; Medieşu-Aurit–Togul lui Schweitzer-settlement[21]; Culciu Mic–La gropi de silozi[22]; Boineşti–Coasta Boineştilor[23]; Ardud–Cetate (unknown material); Halmeu-Vama/Királydomb[24]; Solotvino-Csitatja[25]; Diakovo[26]; Kvasovo[27]; Lăpuşel[28], Csengersima/ Petea[29].

Analogies for the jar-type vessels or large-sized storage vessels decorated by socketed belt and knobs were found in all settlements mentioned above: Csengersima/ Petea[30], Lăpuşel[31]; Halmeu-Vama[32]; Solotvino[33]. All the settlements mentioned above have been classified by T. Bader to the Medieşu Aurit and Culciu Mic phase[34], and by V. Vasiliev, C. Kacsó, L. Marta to the Suciu de Sus culture, phase I. Aforetime, I proposed that these discoveries occurred in Câmpia Someşului, Ucraina Subcarpatică, after the tell type settlements had been abandoned, that was in the final phase of the Ottomani IIIb culture, after a process of division into regions of the Ottomani culture was completed[35].

This hypothesis has been accepted by C. Kacsó considering certain similarities between the late Ottomani pottery and the early Suciu de Sus culture. Subsequently, C. Kacsó reconsidered his position and stands for an independent phase – the Suciu de Sus culture, phase I[36]. One needs to mention that the well closed features like the tumuli at Medieşu Aurit–Dâmbul Acastăului, Csengersima/Petea, Lăpuşel, Halmeu-Vama, Medieşu Aurit-Togul Schweitzer, Ardud-Cetate, or from Carei area, Bobald I, VII, Ferma-Spitz Canal VI, Moftinu Mic - national road Carei-Satu Mare (the former mill), the pottery decorated by excised motifs is completely missing. At Boineşti–Coasta Boineştilor the general aspect of the pottery was typically of the Ottomani III culture, even though there were uncovered several fragments decorated by incision (if stratigraphy is accurate) or there might have been a late habitation level. One could assume that the settlement spanned over a longer period of time and thus stood the chance to meet the typically excised pottery of the Suciu de Sus culture, the classical phase.

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[15] Iercoşan 1996-1997, fig. 4/1
[16] Kacsó 1995, fig. 10/1-2
[17] Pop 2009, fig. 1/5
[18] Németi, Molnár 2007, Pl. 72; 73/2-4; 74/2-3; 75/1; 96/1-2
[19] Németi 1986-87, fig. 16/2-4,7; 17/6,8
[20] Bader 1978, Pl. XLIV/1-4, 6-11, 13
[21] information from L. Marta
[22] Bader 1978, Pl. XLV/1-4, 6-9, 10-11, 13
[23] Bader 1978, Pl. XLVIII/14-17
[24] Marta 2004, Pl. II/1,6,8; IV/2,10
[25] Kobal' 1997, Pl. IV/1,6-7; Pl. V/1,3-5,7; Vasilev, Rustoiu 2002, fig. XLII/3-4, 9; XLVI/3,6
[26] Balahuri 2001, fig. XXII/9, 12, 17-18
[27] Balahuri 2001, fig. 71/5,8,10; 71a/1-3, 7,10
[28] Kacsó 1995, Pl. VIII/2-3, 11; IX/1,5
[29] Almássy, Istvánotivts, Marta, Pop 2009, Pl. I/1-3, 10 – ash protector lid
[30] Almássy et. al. 2009, Pl. I/6-7,9
[31] Kacsó 1995, Pl. I/1-10 – grooved (Bezenstrichmuster)
[32] Marta 2004, Pl. I-VI – seldom grooved
[33] Vasiliev, Rustoiu, fig. 30/1-3; 33/1-5; 43/7-8 – grooved
[34] Bader 1978, 79
[35] Roman, Németi, 1990, 46
[36] Kacsó, 1995

The Ottomani IIIa,b horizon – the last habitation level at Carei-Bobald I from the closed features gr. 6 (S IV), gr. 7 (S VII) and gr. 1 (S VIII) – uncovered no fragments with excised motif. Recently, L. Marta has undersigned that "the settlements at Petea/Csengersima and Culciu Mare-Kertalja (Sub gradini) hardly emerged at the end of the settlements from Boineşti and Culciu Mic"[37], Körösszegapáti-Pál-lapály[38].

The development of the Middle Bronze Age in Câmpia Someşeană is so far still unclear. One thinks that the discoveries from Medieşu Aurit (Potău) – Ciuncaş hold a key position in this matter. Although the pottery materials were selectively published[39], the coarse pottery decorated by grooves, notches or relief motifs can't be entirely assigned to the Suciu de Sus I culture as C. Kacsó proposed lately[40]. Both this kind of pottery together with semi-fine pottery decorated by incised motifs, especially the zig-zag motifs, belong to the early Ottomani culture, Andrid phase. Beside these elements occurred other materials that could be dated to the Ottomani II culture. This fact points to the frequency of some elements inherited from the Sanislău culture. One can't state a clear importance of the pottery fragments that were found in the upper level, which had excised decoration and of which T. Bader thinks they belong to the Suciu de Sus culture. One has to consider they might belong to the classical Suciu de Sus phase that was found on the old Someş river bank (Seinel brook). To conclude, the first habitation level from Medieşu Aurit – Ciuncaş and Ardud – Cetate (Sanislău culture) compares better to the Ottomani I culture, Andrid phase and it is possible that the second habitation level compares well to the Ottomani II, and this way it results that the Suciu de Sus culture, the classical phase hasn't got a genetic connection to the 1st phase of the Suciu de Sus settlements, nor Câmpia Someşeană can't be awarded to this period of the Suciu de Sus culture. I think the settlements mentioned above that belong to the Suciu de Sus I phase from Câmpia Someşului, Depresiunea Lăpuşului and Subcarpatică Ukraine rather belong to the final phase of the Ottomani IIIa, b culture (Bobald group) , being contemporary with the bronze hoards of the Hajdúsámson – Apa type.

B. Habitation level from the Late Bronze Age, phase I.

The typology for the pottery of the Hajdúbagos /Pişcolt – Cehăluţi group has been recently drawn up considering the funeral discoveries and the settlements in the north-western Romania and north-eastern Hungary[41]. The pottery that was found at Acâş – Râtul lui Veres which has been awarded to this typology brought out a series of new elements concerning typology and container decorations.

1) Tureens and bowls

a) Flattened tureen (Pl. XVIII/4, XI/2) in shape and decoration; depicted the most famous prototype of the Ottomani IIIa and Füzesabony cultures – the fully-developed phase – called "the Swedish helmet". The decoration comprised of small knobs associated with semi-circular fluting and small bunches of sockets. Analogies[42].

b) Deep bowl with flaring rim, slightly lobate (Pl. X/ 6); in matter of shape it is classified to the Ottomani IIIa, b, and the incised and lime inlaid decoration is familiar to the Wittenberg pottery, without knowing though of perfect matches in both cultures.

c) Bowls with inverted rim (Pl. XI/3; XVIII/2; XIX/4; XXII/5), with small knobs either on the rim edge or below the rim; they are Ottomani IIIa, b tradition. Analogies[43], Tăşnad-Sere (Parcare) – Pl. XXIV/10.

d) Deeper, handled bowls, with broad flaring rim and lobate, decorated by knobs and narrow varying to broad semicircular fluting (Pl. XV/2, 9; XVII/1; XVIII/6; XIX/7;

[37] Marta 2009, 205
[38] Nagy 2007, Pl. 2-11 - pit a-b
[39] Bader, Dumitraşcu 1970, 127-136
[40] Kacsó 1995, 97
[41] Németi 2009, fig. 1-5, 50-53
[42] Németi 2009, Pl.3/1-2
[43] Németi 2009, fig. 3/5-6

XX/2,4-5). Analogies[44]: Nyíregyháza – Pazonyi út Tesco-Shell[45]. Some tureens were decorated with incised lines or broad, horizontal fluting (Pl. XXIII/3) on the rim and short neck, both inside and outside. Analogies are to be found in closed features dating to the Late Bronze Age, the beginning of the second phase, Ciumeşti-Vatra Satului – Gr.1[46].

e) Tureen (Pl. XXVI/4) with slightly flaring rim, short neck, body decorated by pressing out into bosses and dense, circular fluting.

2) Large-sized, trough-like vessel

Plate XII/1 is a rare container; but close analogies makes with Petea/Csengersima[47], Lăpuş[48].

3) Cups and jugs

a) Jug with a foot or small foot, empty interior (Pl. X/5; XIV/2; XIX/5). Analogies[49].

b) Conical cup, short neck and upraising handle (Pl. X/1; XXVI/5; XXVII/1, 3,7). Analogies met in Berveni - Râtul Caprei[50], Carei-Spitz[51], Petea/ Csengersima[52], Berea XIV – Viile[53], Nyírmada – Vályogvető[54], Debrecen - Hálappuszta[55].

c) Cup (Pl. XVII/6) decorated by excised motifs, Suciu de Sus culture, phase II.

d) Flat bottomed cup, decorated by bunches of small sockets Pl. X/1. Analogy[56].

e) Cup with the neck distinguishing from the body, upraising handle and a button (Pl. XIV/10; XVII/11). Close analogies with Pişcolt-Nisipărie[57].

4) Pots

a) Pots with everted rim, the neck distinguishing from the body (Pl. XII/4; XV/1), decorated by spirals and fluting, sockets shaping „grain seeds", well known in the Ottomani IIIa, b.

b) Small pots (Pl. XIX/8-9, 11) decorated by vertical fluting, bands of impressed lines, (Pl. XV/7), knobs, flutings and sockets (Pl. XX/8; XX/4, 8; XXV/5, 7, XXVII/6).

c) Pots and jar-type vessels made of coarse paste (Pl. XI/6; XVII/10; XVIII/7; XIX/6; XXI/5). Widely known type, decorated by knobs and socketed belt[58].

d) Pots with everted or flat rim, decorated by horizontal flutings on the inside, painted in red (probably ochre) – Pl. XV/8, 10; they are rare; make analogies with Ciumeşti, vatra satului – Gr.1[59].

e) Pottery fragments - pots decorated by wavy impressed lines (Pl. XII/7; XXV/1). This decoration usually appears in unspecific context for the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ group. Analogies make with Valea lui Mihai - Gropa de lut (material inedit), Nyíregyháza-Pazonyi út Tesco-Shell[60]. This decoration was spread in the settlements and cemeteries of the mature Gáva period of evolution: Căuaş-Sighetiu (unclear material), Vencsellő-Castle Park[61], Debrecen-Nyúlas[62], Poroszló Aponhát[63], Nagykálló[64], Tiszaeszlár[65].

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[44] Németi 2009, fig. 3/3-4
[45] Nagy 2007, Pl. II/3-4
[46] Németi 2008, fig. 18/4; 20/4
[47] Marta 2009, Pl. 40/16; 44/11
[48] Kacsó 2001, Pl. 22 – tumulus 2; 23. T. 10; 25. T. 21 – decorated by excised motifs
[49] Németi 2009 fig. 4/1-2, 4-9
[50] Németi 1990, fig 3/6; 6/6; 9/2-6
[51] Németi 1990, fig. 11/2; 13/7; 14/3; 15/6
[52] Marta 2009, pl. 39/11-12; 41/1; 42/10; Almássy et. al., 2009, Pl. III/2
[53] Colecţia Kovács, 1977 no. of inv. 31 253
[54] Tóth, Marta 2005, PL. XI/5-7
[55] Kemeczei 1984, Pl. CXXII/11- 19
[56] Németi 2009, fig. 3/12
[57] Németi 1978, fig. 6/8, gr. 5/974
[58] Németi 2009, fig. 2/ 6-9
[59] Németi 2008, 80, fig. 18/7
[60] Nagy 2007, Pl. IV/4
[61] Dani 2001, Pl. 1/1-2
[62] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. CXXVI/10
[63] Patai 1976, Pl. 2/1-2; Kemenczei 1984, Pl. CXXVII/1-2,8-11
[64] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. CXXX/18
[65] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. CXXXI/7

5) Portable cooking vessel

The portable cooking vessel fragments belong to the type of containers with a broad mouth for fire (Pl. XI/5; XXII/1-2). Analogy[66]. This type of portable cooking vessel (pyraunos) was widely spread during the Late bronze Age, phase I, especially during the Suciu de Sus culture, the classical phase, Culciu Mare[67], Petea/ Csengersima[68] and generally during the Late Bronze Age[69]. It is interesting that the grill pyraunos type was to be found in north-western Romania during the Middle Bronze Age, the Ottomani II-III culture. It looks like a similar situation was present in north-eastern Hungary[70].

6) Tapered vessel with flaring rim

The discoveries made at Acâş–Râtul lui Veres did not uncover any amphorae which were typical of the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţi[71]. Such a vessel was found at Valea lui Mihai, in the town, which probably originated from an urn cremation grave (the vessel is unclear, under private property). This grave provided several vessels and metal objects that are hosted in the collection of the Andrássy Ernő Museum of Valea lui Mihai. The present settlement is located on the place called "Groapa cu lut".

Besides those graves occurred many vessel fragments or even restored containers (Pl. X/2) with broad flaring rim, flat, cylindrical neck decorated by small and large knobs with wide fluting framed by two vertical ribs on both sides. Analogies met at Valea Lui Mihai – Groapa cu lut – Pl. XXIX/5-7 (recent investigation, unclear yet) – Tăşnad-Sere (Parking), Gr. 197. (Pl. XXVIII/6). These decorative motifs appeared on a cup at Pişcolt – Nisipărie[72]. We can also find analogies in le Nyíregyháza – Új csere[73].

7) Jar-type vessel

The jar-type vessel with lobate lip and fit with knob-handle (Pl. XVIII/3) frequently appeared in the Suciu de Sus culture, at Petea/Csengersima[74].

8) Storage vessels

Large-sized storage vessels with broad, everted rim, cylindrical neck, decorated by horizontal flutings, large knobs on the body framed by narrow fluting (Pl. XI/1; XX/3; XXIV/9; XXVI/1-2; XXVII/2). Analogies met at Berveni–Râtul Caprei[75], Carei–Spitz[76], Petea/Csengersima[77], Lăpuş[78], Tăşnad-Sere (Parking) – Pl. XXVIII/1,3,4 – unclear material. Some of these vessels had broad, everted rim decorated by horizontal fluting (Pl. 27/5); analogies at Ciumeşti –Vatra satului Gr. 1[79], Nyíregyháza Pazonyi út, Tesco[80].

9) Special vessels

a) "Fish-pan" type of vessel (Pl. XI/4), encountered in the Ottomani culture, especially in its late phase, as well as in the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt–Cehăluţ group. Analogies are met at Doh–La Izvoare[81], Crasna–Csereoldal[82].

b) Small lids (Pl. XXIII/8) with analogies at Petea/Csengersima[83]; others were fit with a small handle decorated by fingerprints or oblique fluting (Pl. XIII/1; XVIII/3). The latter

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[66] Németi 2009, fig. 4/ 10-11
[67] Bader 1978, Pl. LIII/1-3
[68] Marta 2009, Pl. 5/1-2
[69] see Fischl, Kiss, Kulcsár 2001, Pl. 4; 5/1-2, 6-8, 11, 14, 16
[70] Fischl, Kiss, Kulcsár 2001, fig. 3, Pl. 4/2; 5/36-37, 43
[71] Németi 2009, fig 2/1-3
[72] Németi 2009, fig. 4/9
[73] Bejinariu et. al. 2008, Pl. VI/4; VII/3; XV/1; *Idem* 2009, 57-85, Pl. 4/1; 5/3, 9/1
[74] Marta 2009, Pl. 1 – tipul I Ba şi Pl. 58/10
[75] Németi 1990, fig. 1/7; 5/1; 6/1
[76] Németi 1990, fig. 13/1-2
[77] Marta 2009, Pl. 14/1-4, 7; 49/3
[78] Kacsó 2001, Pl. 12/T.A; 13/T A; 14/T.21; 15/T.20; 16/T.9; 20/T.12; 21/T.20
[79] Németi 2008, fig. 20/8 – assigned to Ha. A1
[80] Nagy 2007, Pl. 3/1
[81] Lakó 1983, IV/10
[82] Lakó 1983, III/5
[83] Marta 2009, 38/5

type is not known among the artefacts of the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt–Cehăluţ[84] but it meets analogies at Tăşnad – Sere (Parking) – Pl. XXVIII/5, XXIX/1-2; Valea lui Mihai – Groapa cu lut (Pl. XXIX/3-4), Crasna – Csereoldal[85].

c) Small, fragmentary objects, clay made (Pl. XVI/6-10). No intact objects were found; therefore one can't determine their function (fragments of statues or other decorations).

d) Pottery fragments with excised decoration (Pl. XVII/2-5). Specific of the Suciu de Sus culture.

e) Handle fragments (Pl. XXIV/2-4) decorated by wavy lines and incisions. Vessel bases (Pl. XXIV/5-6) decorated by incised motifs – spirals, sockets and circle-shaped fluting.

10) Tools

a) Clay weighs (Pl. XII/2,3; XXV/9; XXVIII/2 – miniature artefact) belong to common objects.

b) Stone grinder (Pl. XIV/8); common object.

c) Fragmentary pattern of fired clay (Pl. XVI/2-3) – probably used for moulding needles. Fragmentary pattern, well done on both sides and made of gritstone (Pl. XVI/1) – probably used for moulding needles. Close analogies at Lăpuş[86].

d) Bronze needles (Pl. XVI/4-5); analogies at Muhi-Princ-tanya[87]–Piliny culture; Aggtelek –Baradla Cave[88] -Kyjatice culture); Kótaj[89]. A similar needle with thickened head and decorated by patterns of incised, zig-zag lines is mentioned at Crasna – Csereoldal, dated to the BrD – HaA 1[90]. Analogies for the two needles are to be met at Acâs – Rîtul lui Veres and in Central Europe they are dated between BrD and Ha A2[91]. These needles have a long life for which reason they can't fit a tighter dating.

e) Small cart wheels (Pl. XXI/8-9). Their spanning lasted between the Early bronze Age until the Late bronze Age, phase I.

Conclusions

Researches at Acâs – Râtul lui Veres have established a habitation level dating from the Middle Bronze Age, the Ottomani III a, b culture contemporary with the Wiettenberg culture IV phase. It lies at the basis of the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ group (culture?) and it started its developed when settlements emerged after tells had been abandoned[92].

The Bronze Age, phase I habitation level is well assigned to the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ cultural group. The artefacts uncovered at Acâs-Râtul lui Veres do not exceed, in my opinion, the timeline of the cultural horizon of the Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ group. Our attempt to separate the typical pottery of this habitation level using the discoveries at Berveni-Râtul Caprei, Carei-Spitz, Petea-Csengersima is the first step in establishing the first manifestation of Gáva culture through pottery and which is going to standardize the cultural cultural groups that emerged under the impulse of the Tumulus culture: Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ group, Egyek culture, Piliny culture and Suciu de Sus, phase II, culture, the latter had a longer spanning if we consider the imports from the settlements at Hajdúbagos/Pişcolt-Cehăluţ and from what we called pre-Gáva settlements located in Câmpia Careiului, Câmpia Tisei, Depresiunea Şimleului, and in Nyírség area from Hungary, for example, Nyírmada-Vályogvető[93].

Large-sized vessels with hyperbolical knobs empty on the inside have been attested only at the first level from Teleac[94]. As we have afore seen, they also appear in the

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[84] Németi 2008, fig. 4/12
[85] Lakó 1983, Pl. III/9
[86] Kacsó 2001, T.13
[87] Kemenczei 1984, XXXVIII/10,11,13
[88] Kemenczei 1984, Pl. C/20
[89] Jósa through Kemenczei 1965, Pl. 69/3,4
[90] Bejinariu – Lakó, 153-219, Pl. 35/1
[91] Knöpke 2009, Pl. 49/3-5; 50/1-2
[92] Németi 2009, 41-43
[93] Kacsó 2007, 43-62
[94] Vasiliev et. al. 1991, fig. 29/13-14, 18; Vasiliev 2006-2007, 7-16, fig. 1; Vasiliev 2008, fig.1/1-9; Pankau 2004 48/6-7

tumulus necropolis at Lăpuş II (T9), in Moldavia, at Grăniceşti, and south, on the territory of Dobrogea, at the I-II level at Babadag, in north-western Transylvania were highly frequent, in Hungary and Slovakia[95]. Besides the large-sized vessels with hyperbolical knobs, other new forms emerged, like bowls and tureens decorated by horizontal fluting on the inside, or bowls and tureens with inverted, protruding rim, small, tapered cups, flat, with upraised handles, tapered jugs with a small knob on the edge of the handle, large-sized storage vessels with flat and broad rim, with fluting and other vessels like these decorated on their cylindrical neck by horizontal fluting and by oblique fluting on their bodies. A new decorative motif appears to be the parallel, wavy lines which will have become specific of the Gáva culture, the full-developed stage (Pl. XXX-XXXII).

Bichrome painting is a new pottery technology which has the vessels painted black on the outside and red-brick-red on the inside, specific of the Gáva culture. Bichrome painting does not appear only on the large-sized vessels, but also on small pots. This type of discoveries from Acâs-Râtul lui Veres and other settlements mentioned above point to a genetical evolution towards the Gáva culture.

Based on the observations made on the traditional black pottery from the pottery centres at Mohács, Gömör – Ungaria[96], the bichrome painting has not tight relations with the vessel firing itself, but it is a subsequent processing applied to pottery after the vessels were fired in oxidizing atmosphere in kilns or in special pits arranged for firing vessels (antiquity, in our case). The black colour on the outer surface of the vessels was obtained by laying containers upside down in kilns and after the firing in oxidizing atmosphere was finished, they were submitted to a special processing with a smoking fire, after the kiln or the firing pits were covered. The ash laid on vessels, but when the smoke penetrated below the vessel rim, a thin, black line took shape on the inside. The ash laid on vessels turned into "graphite" and the outer surface of the vessels became burnished black or matt. This is only a hypothesis of the procedure for obtaining bichrome painting pottery. It can be confirmed or denied by the petrographic analyses made on pottery.

The discoveries we mentioned here (their number has increased with new settlements: Tăşnad-Sere – Parcare, Valea lui Mihai – Groapa cu lut) are chronologically related to the Lăpuş II phase – the tumulus necropolis and the settlement from Groşii Ţibleşului – Ograde[97], moreover they are thought to be the earliest manifestation of the Gáva culture. Their genetic relation with the classical Gáva culture still requires more proof, observations and archaeological investigations, reason for which I still submit to the denomination of pre-Gáva as an early manifestation of the Gáva culture itself, although a theory unaccepted by C. Kacsó[98].

Chronologically comparing these discoveries with those similar from Transylvania, one can make connections with the cultures: Cugir-Band-Lăpuş II, recently classified by H. Ciugudean to the Late Bronze Age II.A – Ältere Urnenfeldenzeit-Ha.A1-Müller-Karpe and with the discoveries of the type Nagykálló, Szentes-Nagyhegy[99].

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[95] Vasiliev 1991, 82
[96] Kresz 1987, 524-598
[97] Kacsó 1993, 33, Pl. VII/17,19; Pl. IX/14, 18-19
[98] Kacsó 2007, 56
[99] Ciugudean 2009, 313-337, fig. 2 – chronological table

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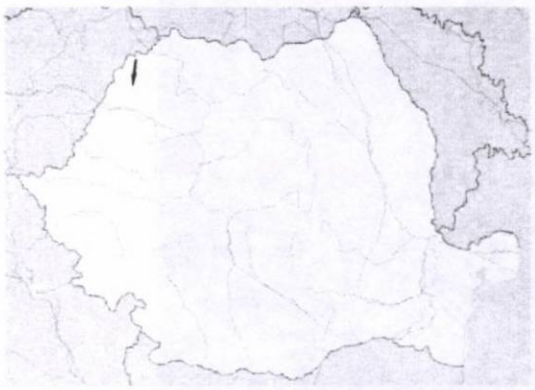

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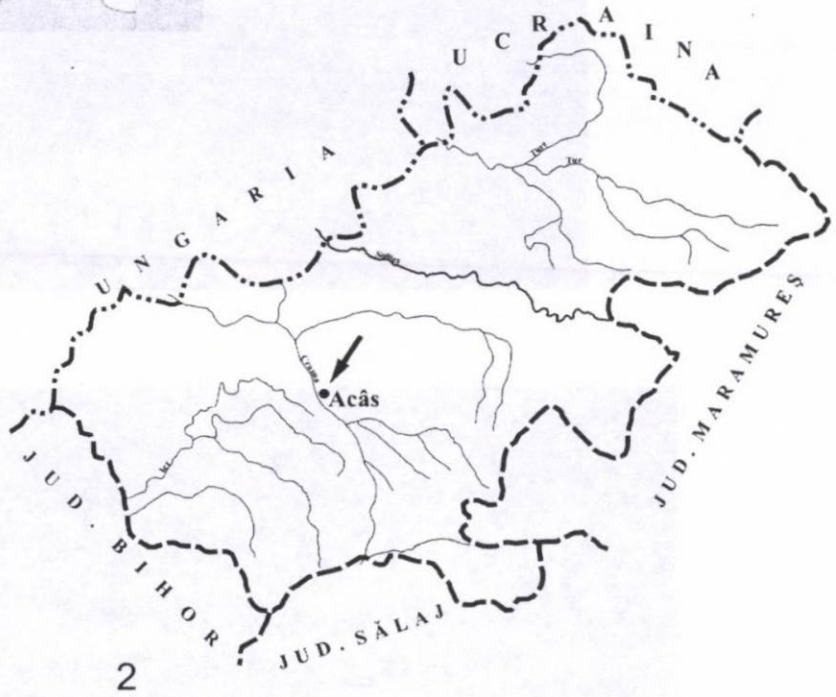

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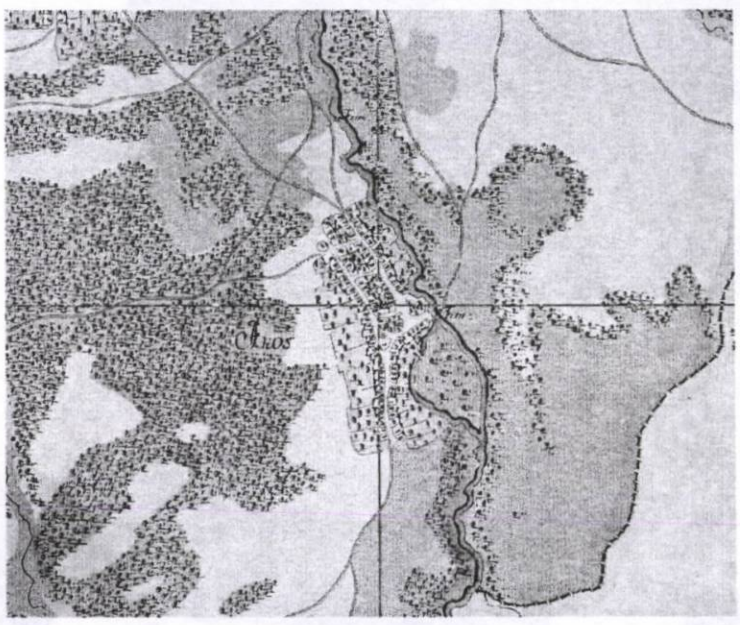

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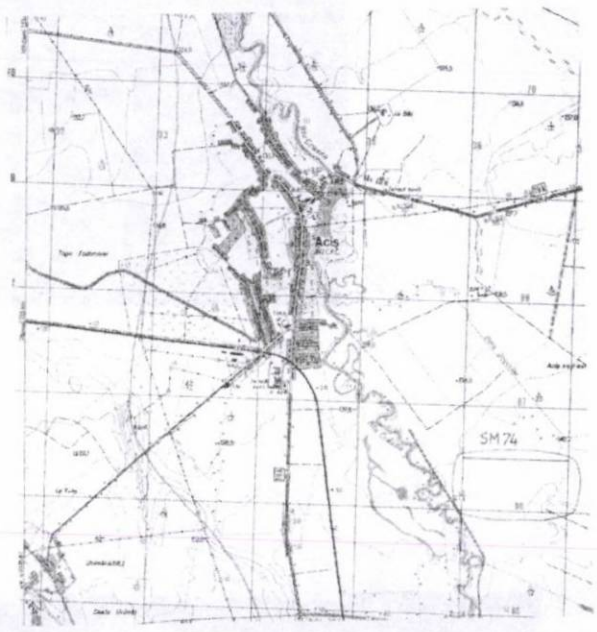

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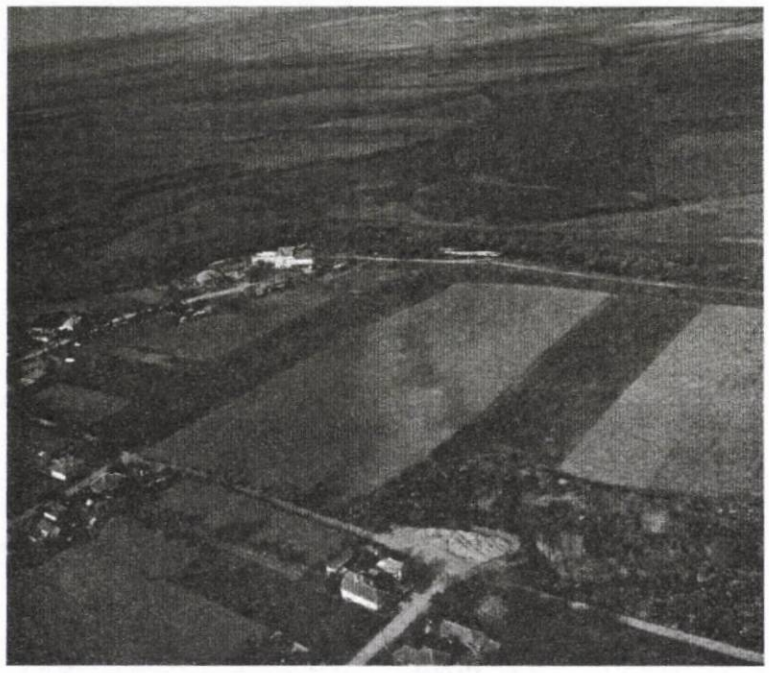
Plate I. 1. Map of Romania. 2. Satu Mare County. 3. The first millitary Map (XVIII.Century). 4. Acâş village (Map from 1978, 1:25000).



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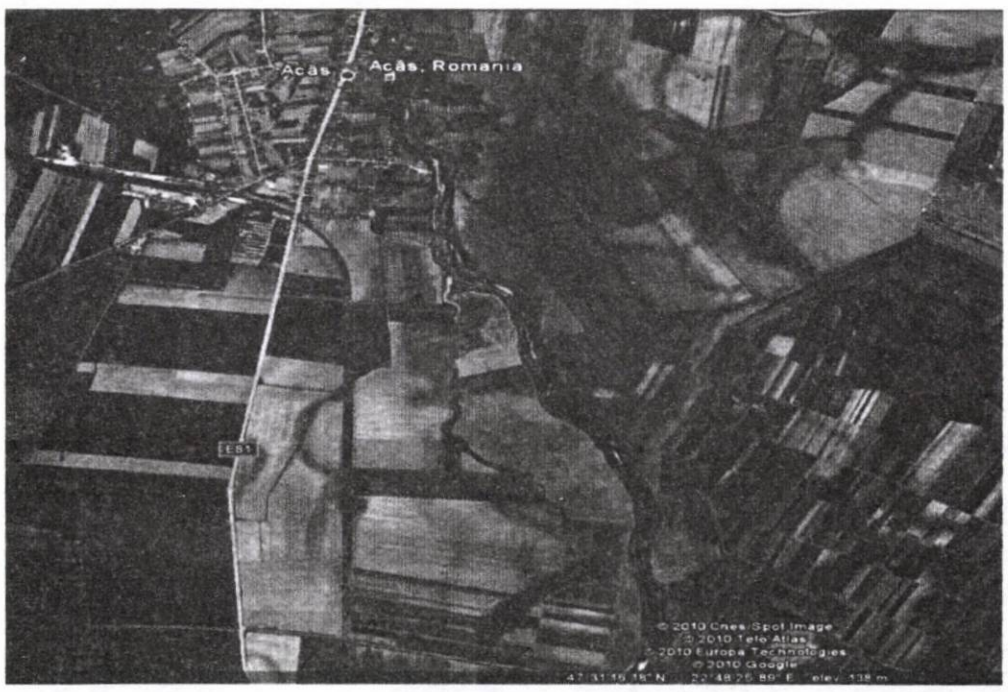

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Plate II. 1. Aerial photograph. 2. Satelite photograph (Google Earh). 3-4. The Acâş-Râtul lui Veres site and the Crasna river.

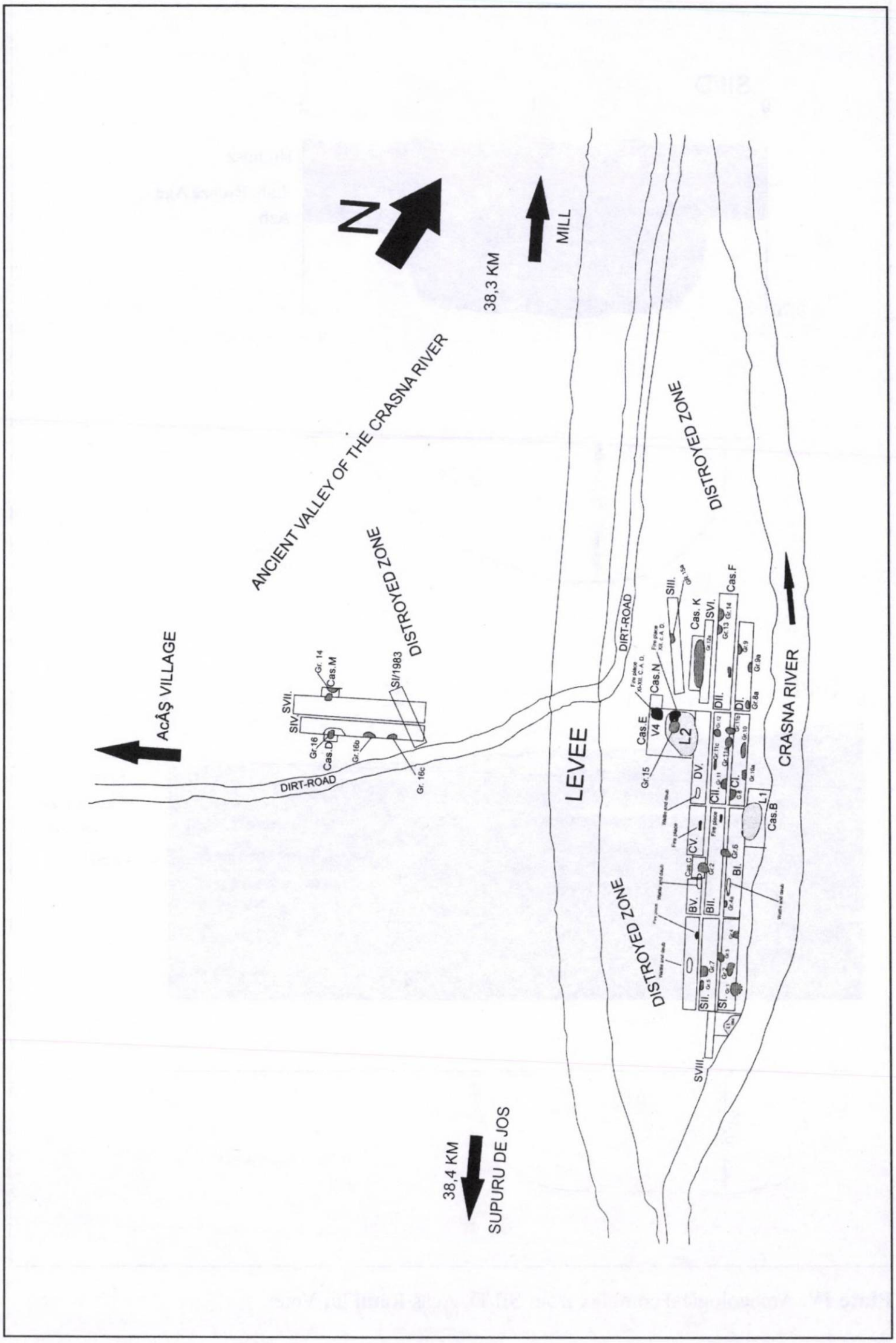


Plate III. Line drawing by János Németi of the excavation on the Acâş-Râtul lui Veres (2000).

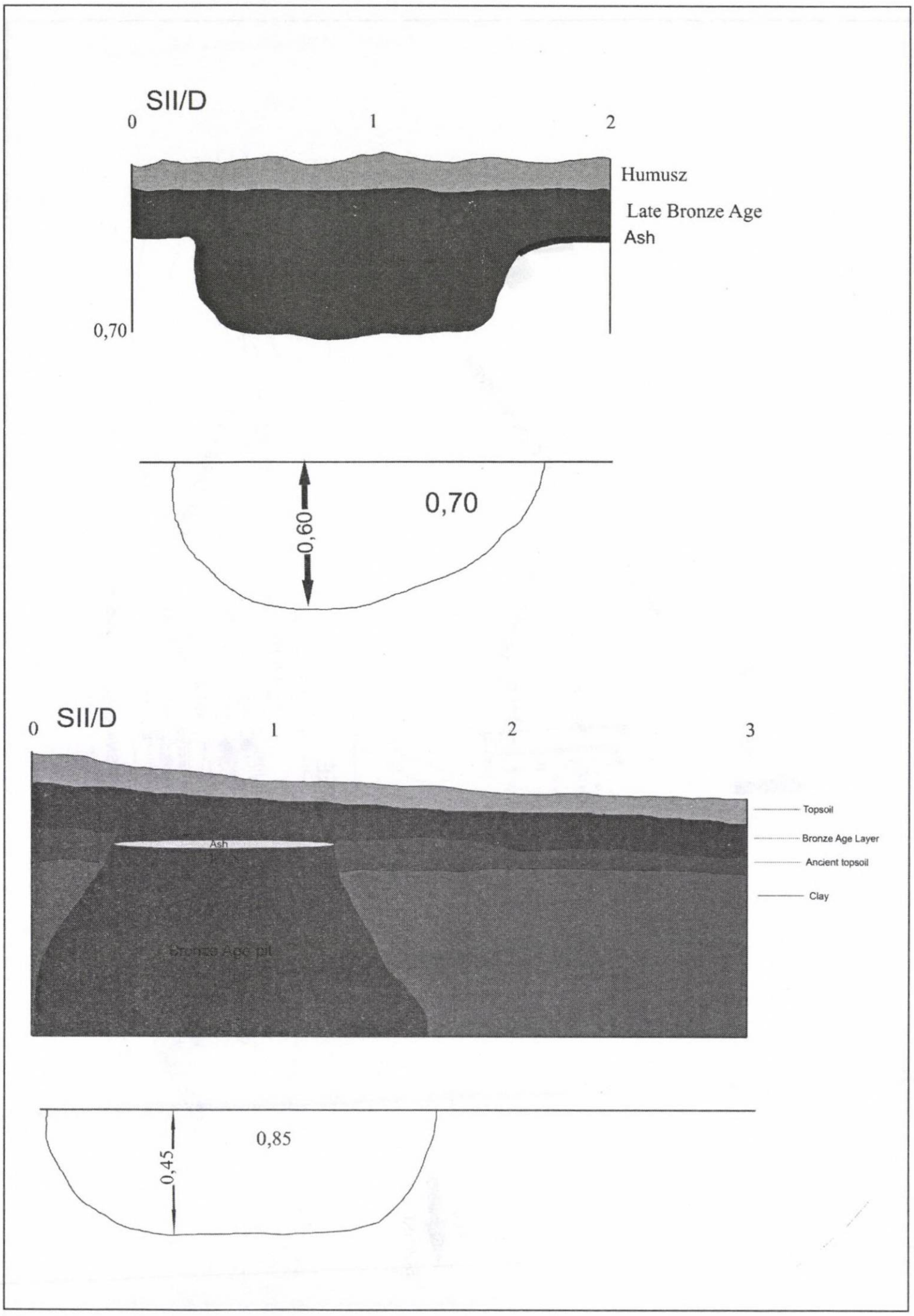
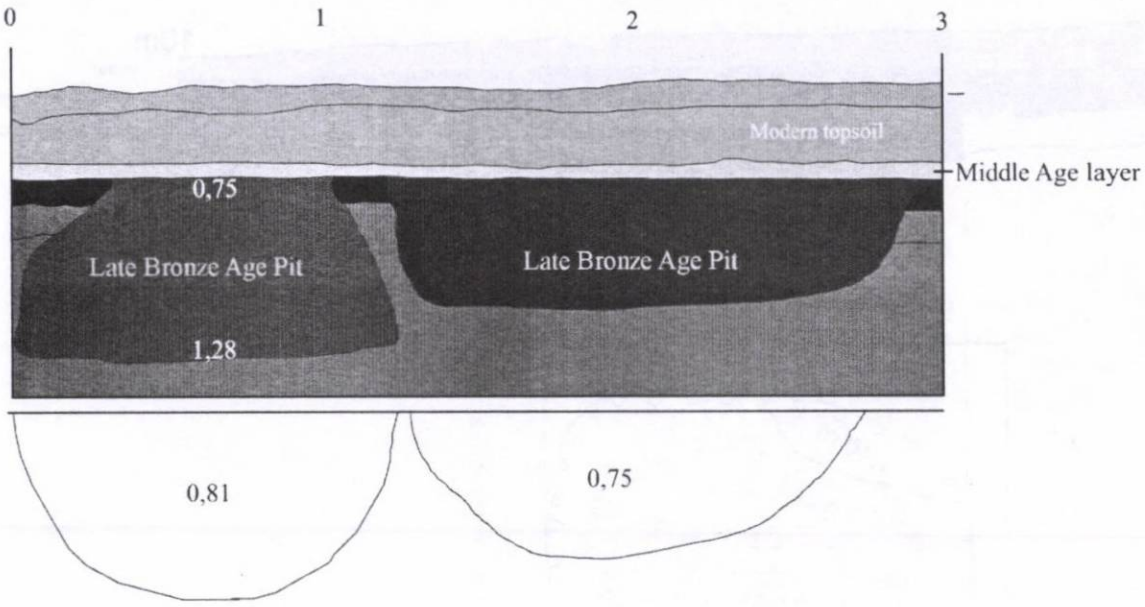
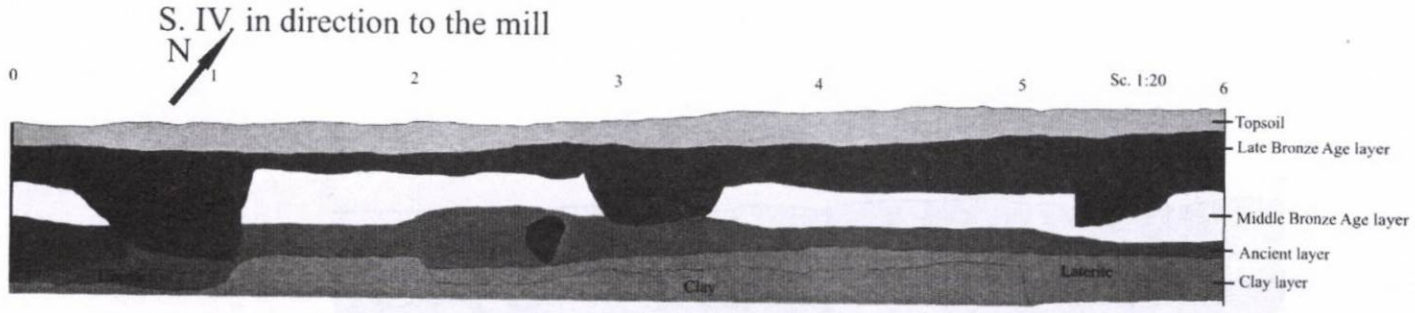


Plate IV. Archeological complex from SII/D, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

SII/D Cas. F



S. IV in direction to the mill



S.IV in direction to the dirt road

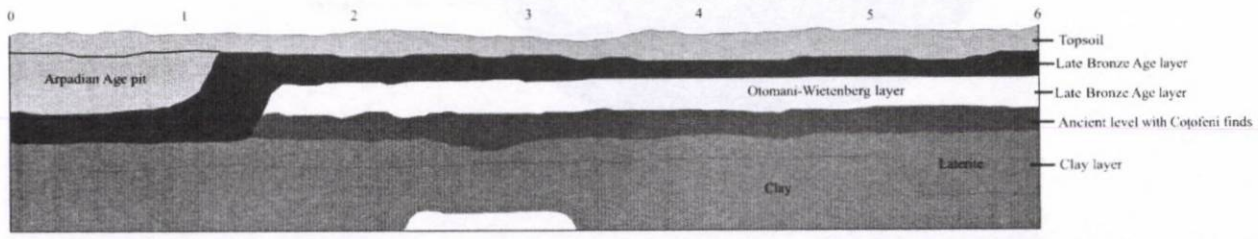
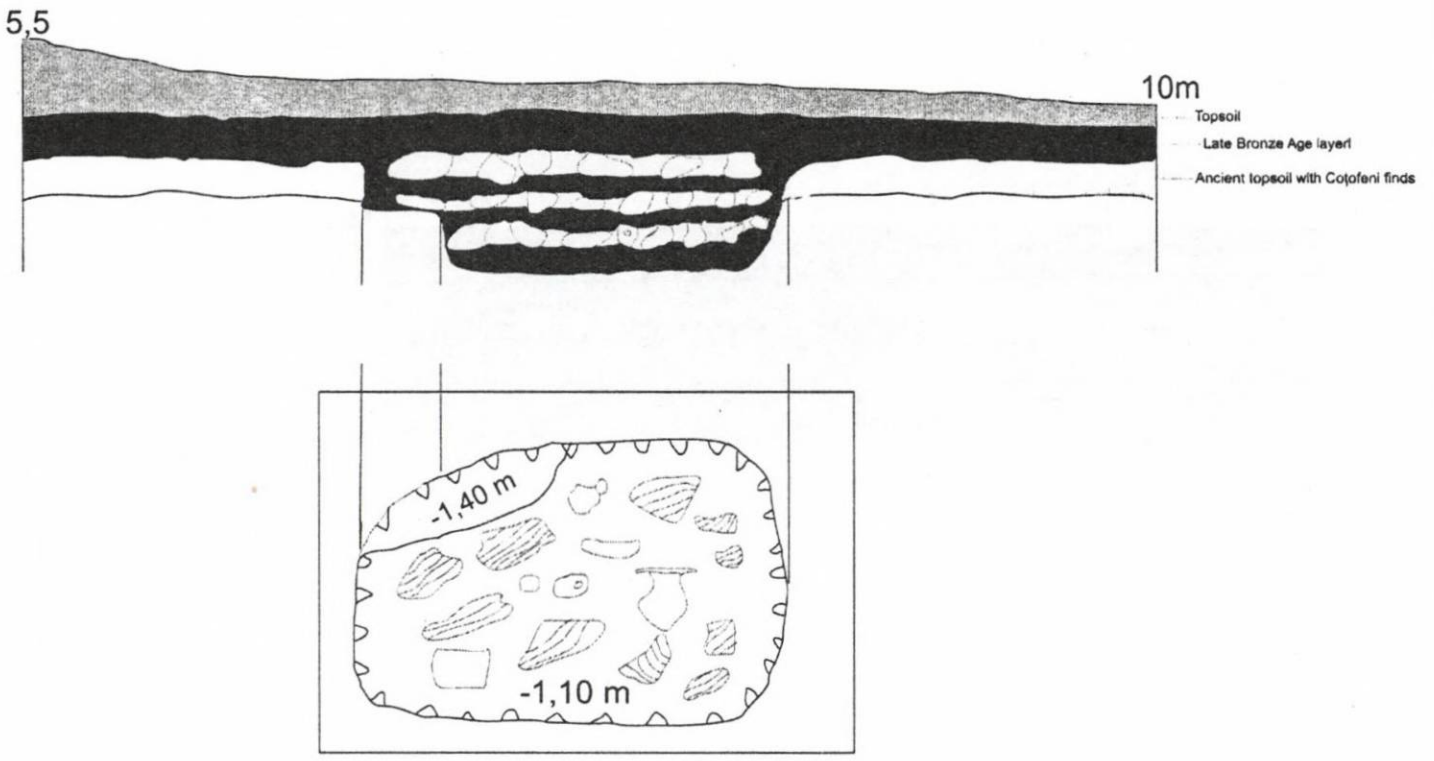


Plate V. Archeological complex from SII/D-F; SIV, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.



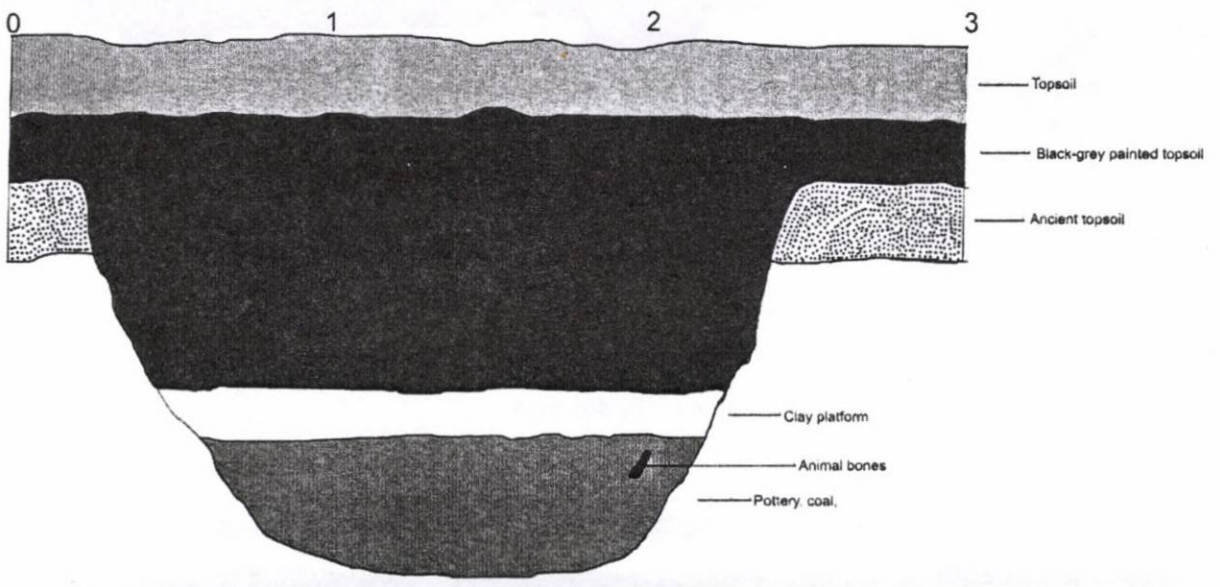


Plate VI. Pit, No. 2 from Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

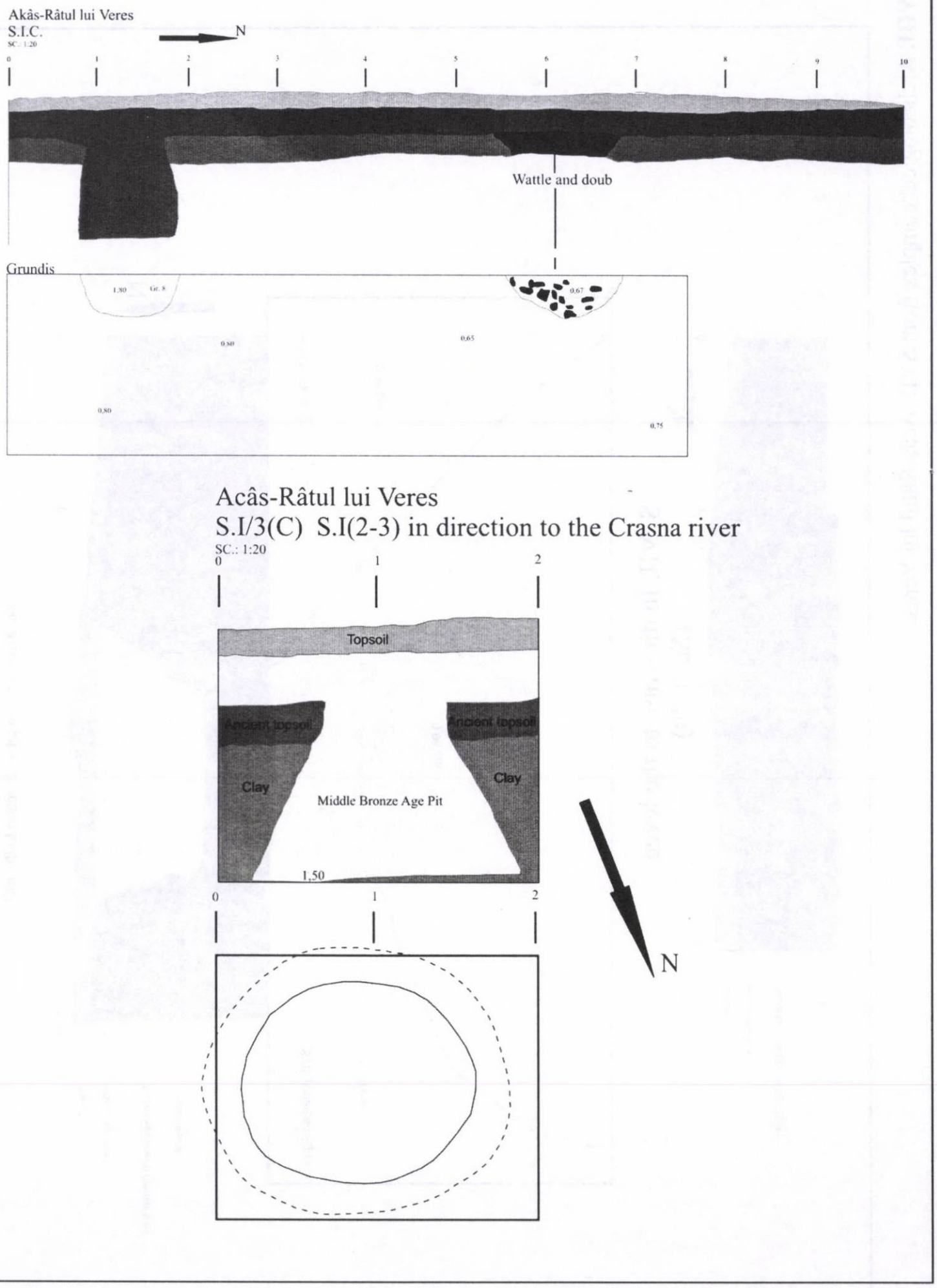


Plate VII. Archeological complex from SI/C, SI/3 SI (2-3), Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

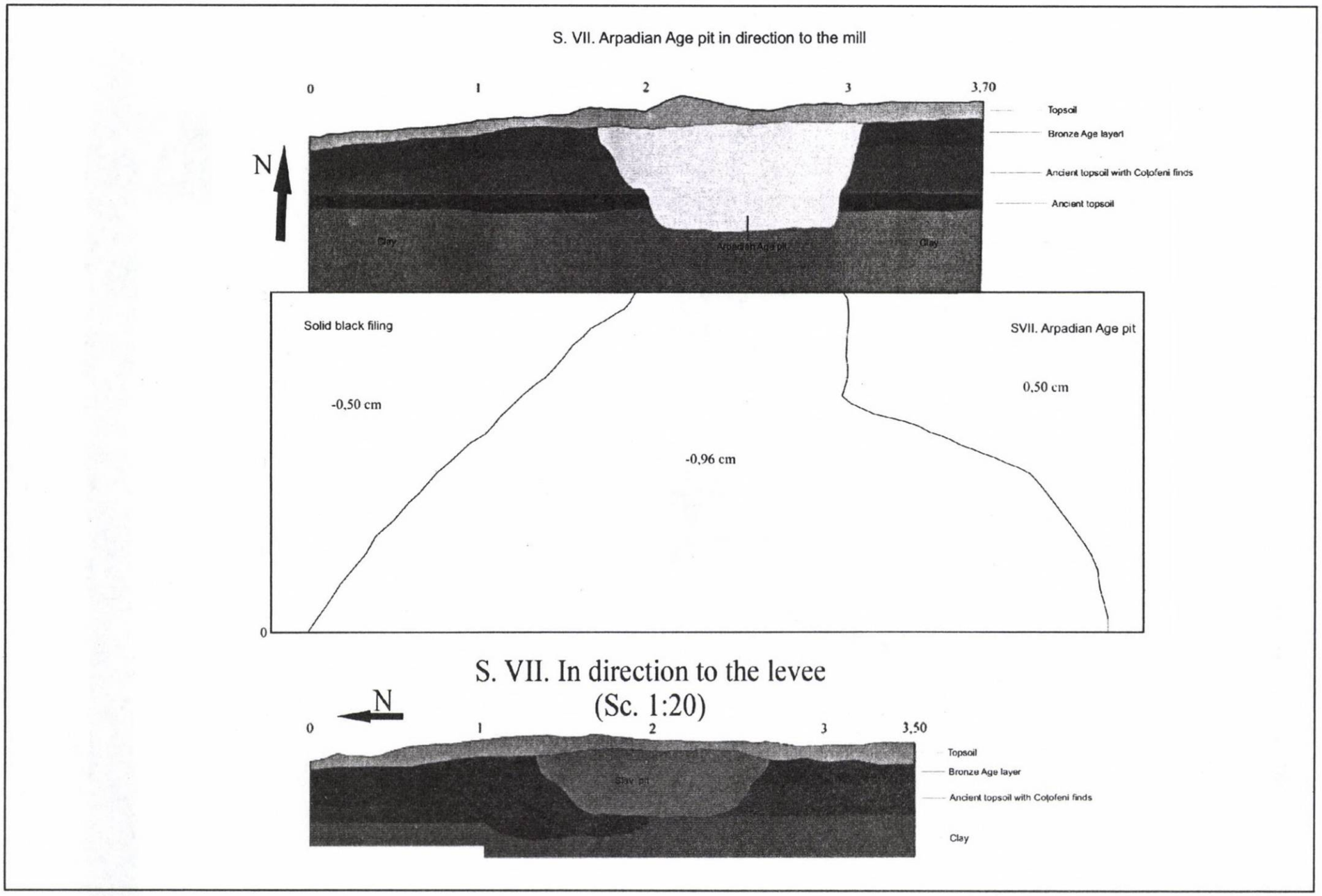


Plate VIII. Archeological complex from SVII, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

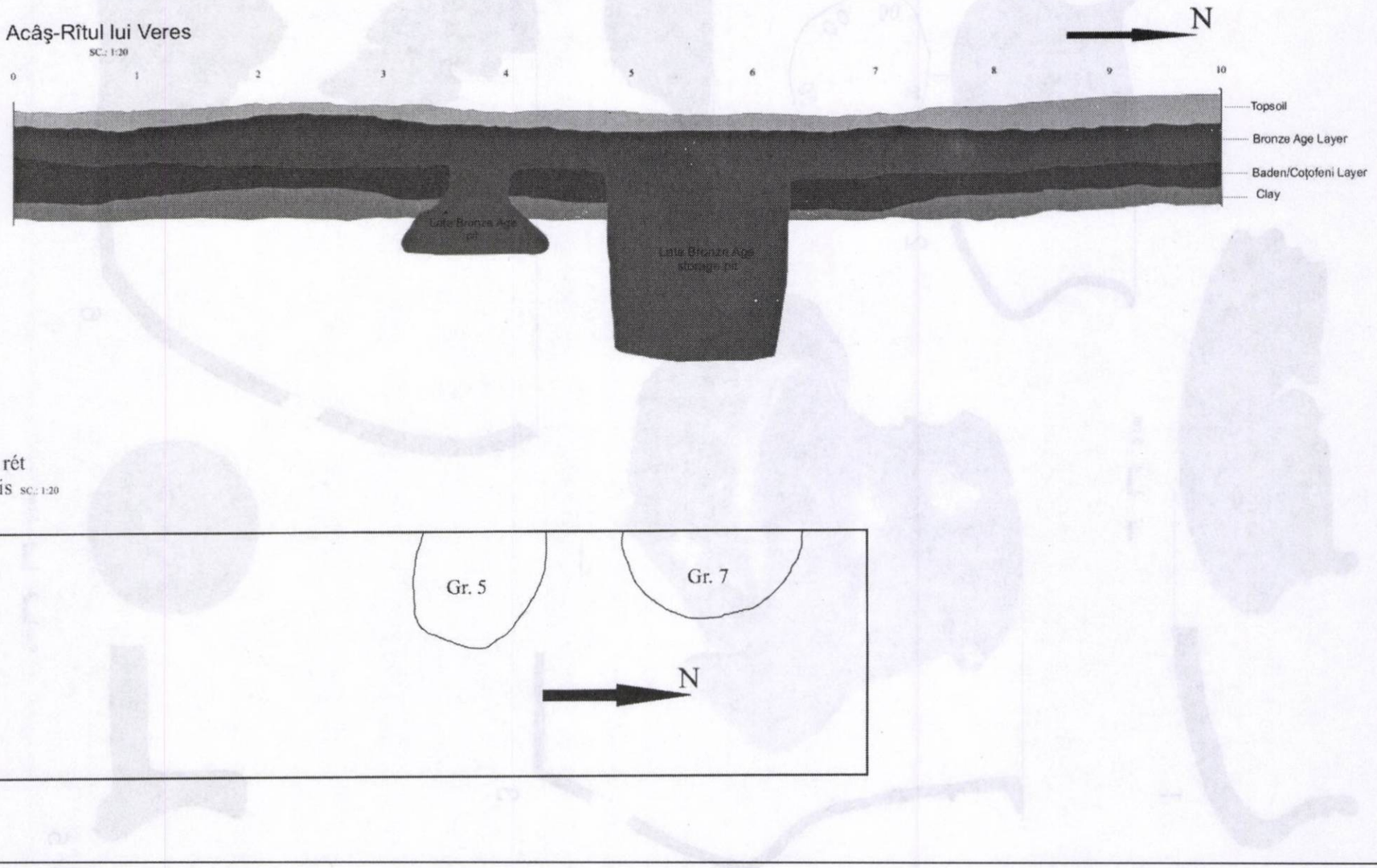


Plate IX. Archeological complex from SII, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

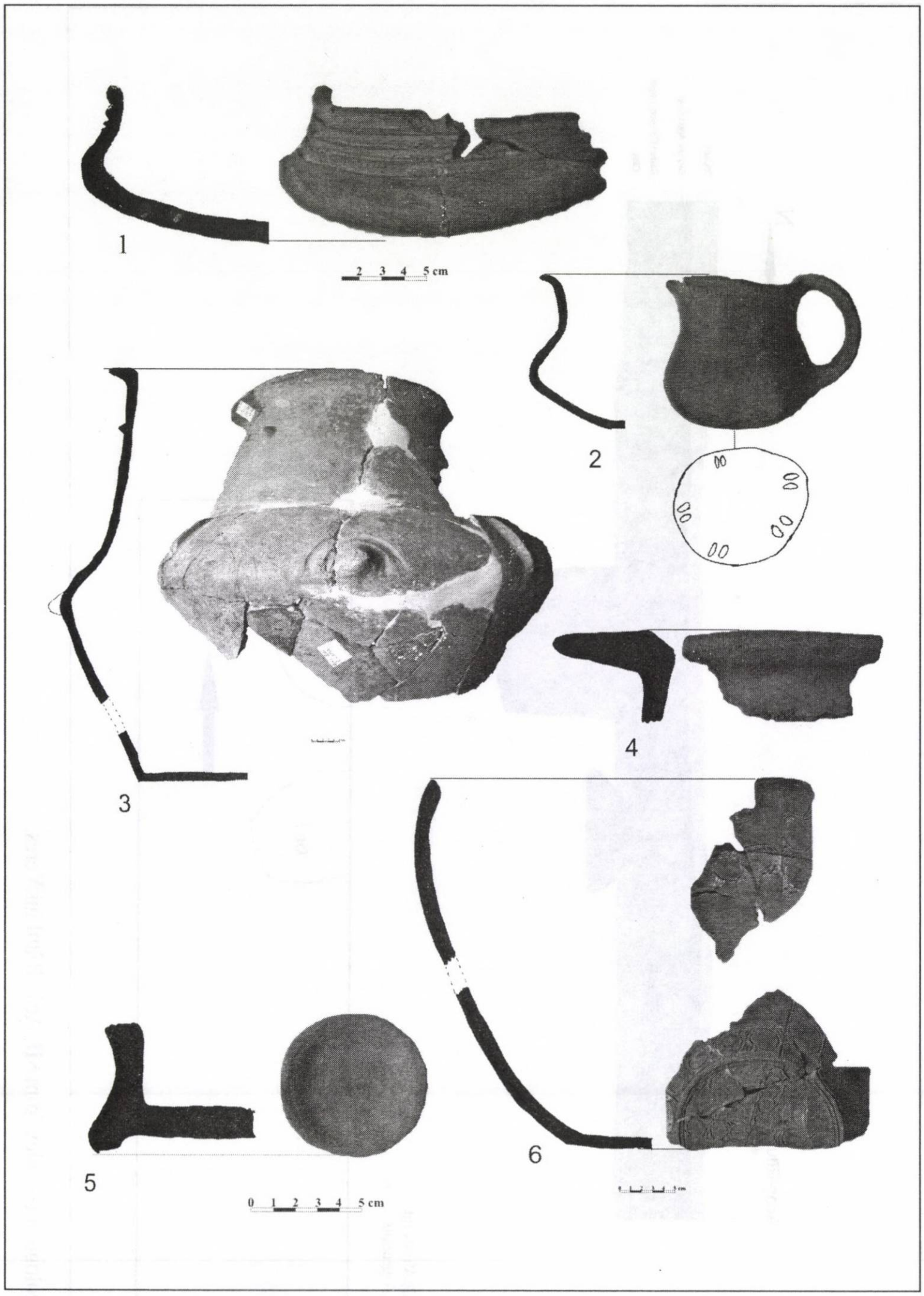


Plate X. Vessel and pottery from Pit no. 2, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

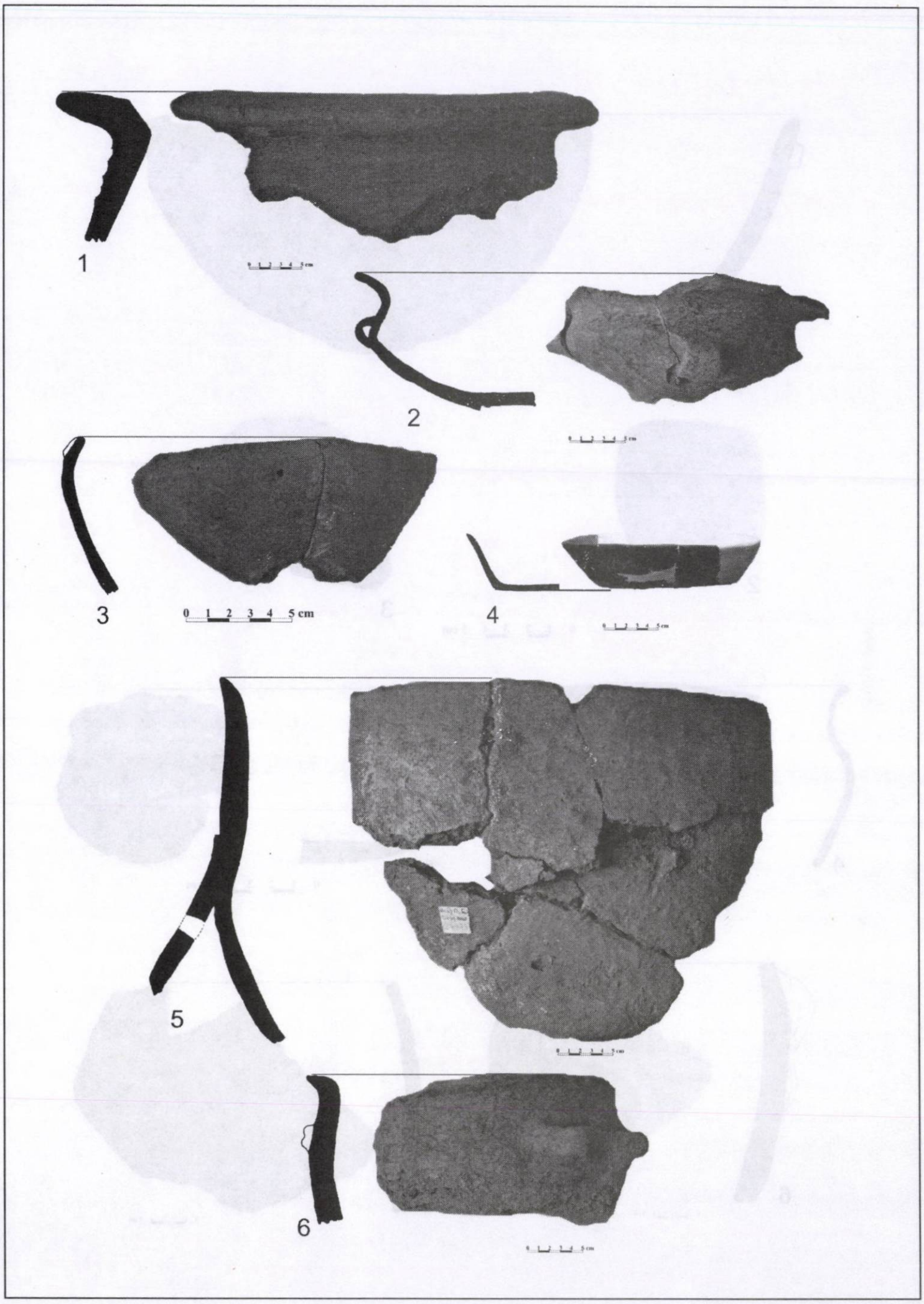


Plate XI. Pottery from Pit no. 2, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

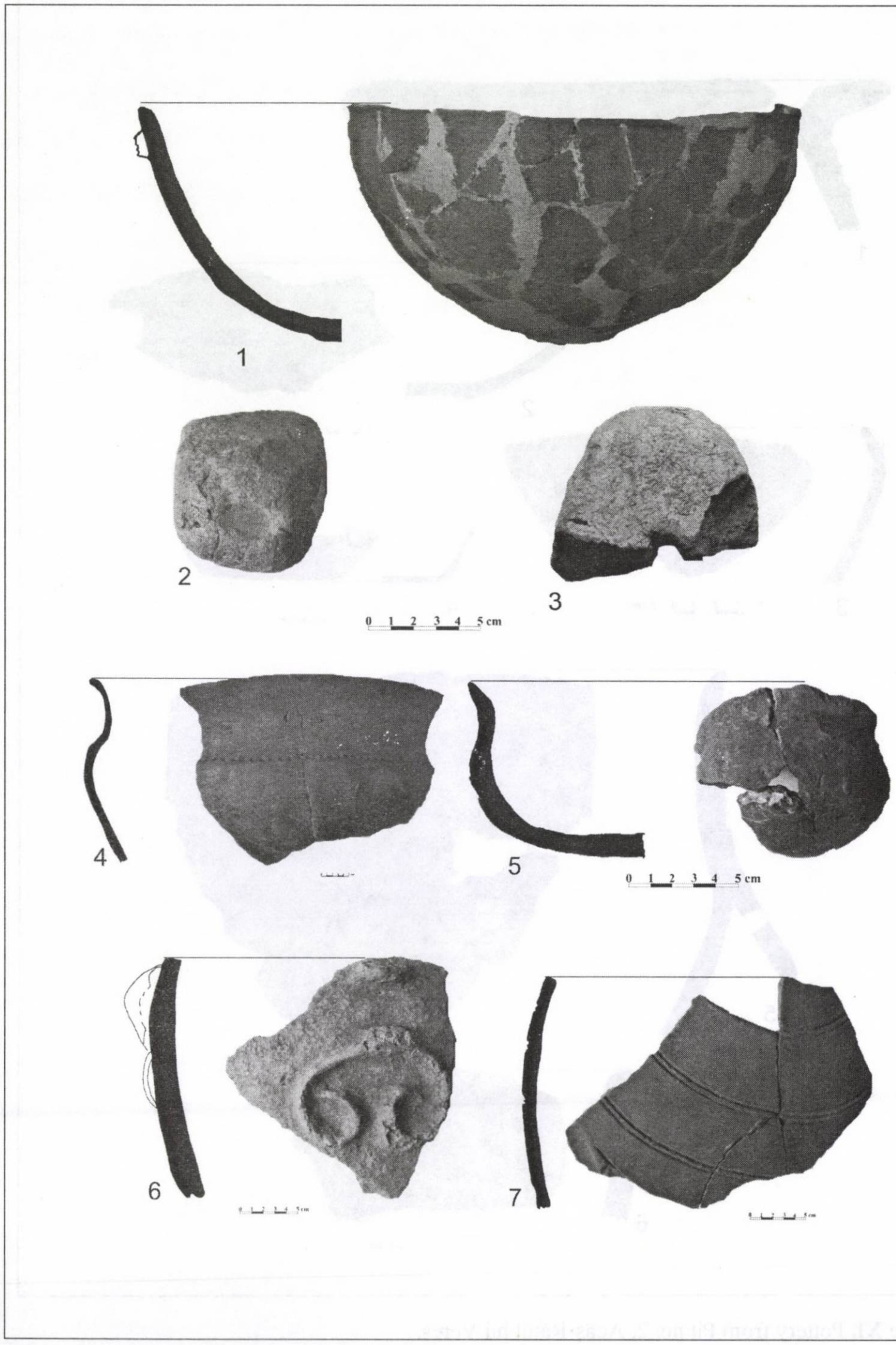


Plate XII. Pottery from Pit no. 2; 5-7 Pottery found in 1982, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

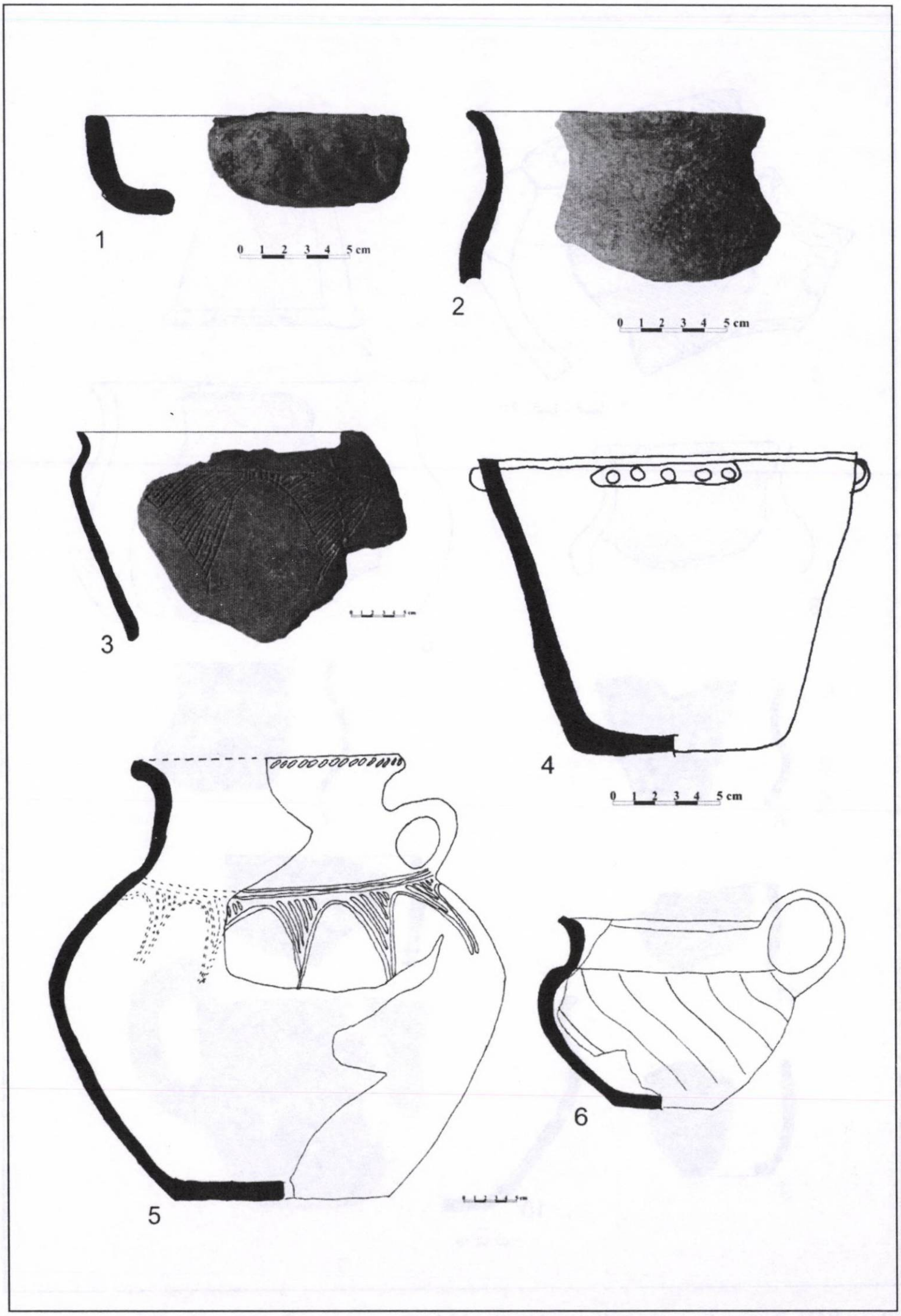


Plate XIII. Vessel from the rescue excavation 1983 (N. Ierocşan) Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

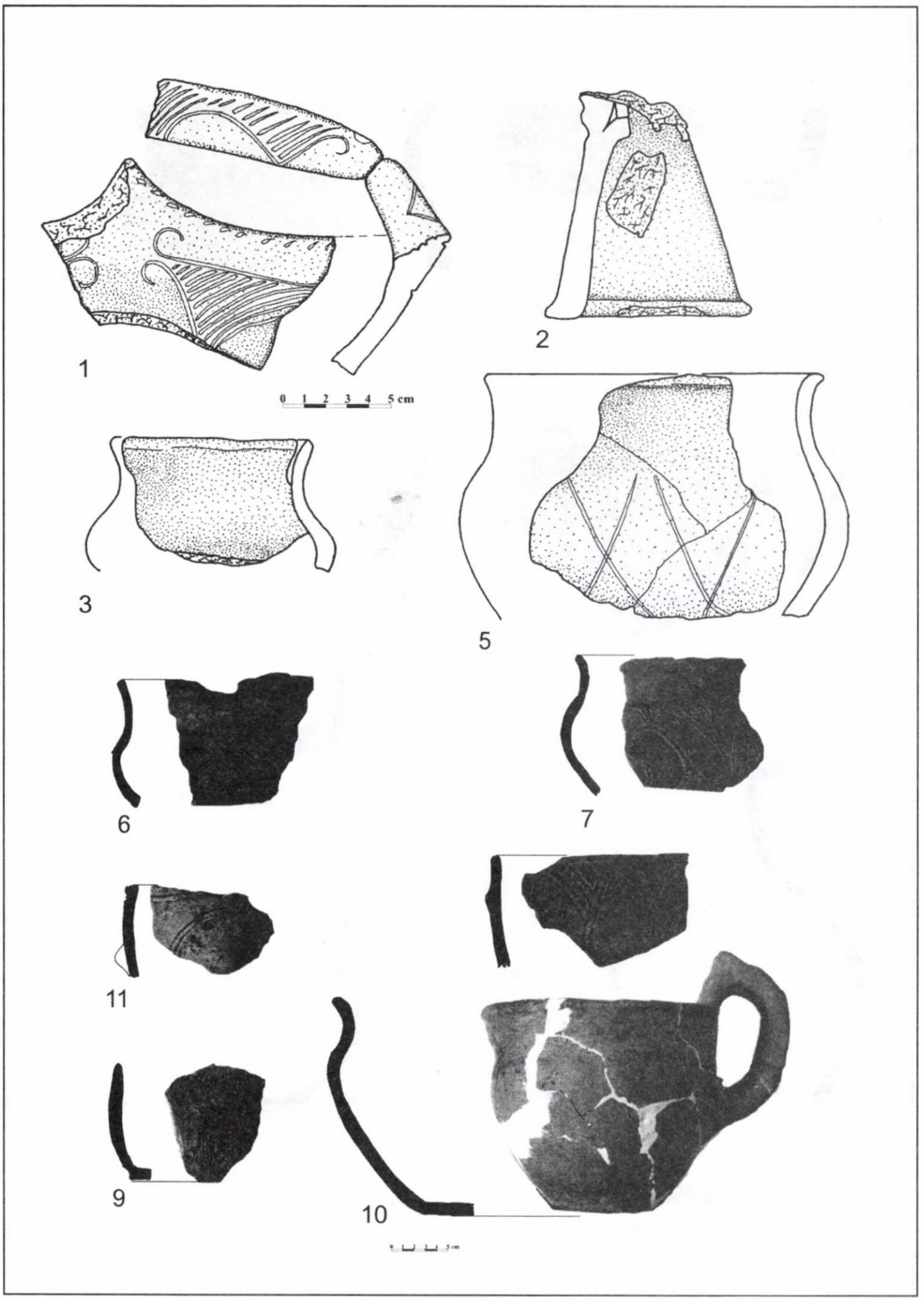


Plate XIV. Pottery from the collapsed bank of Old Crasna river (J. Németi 1983)

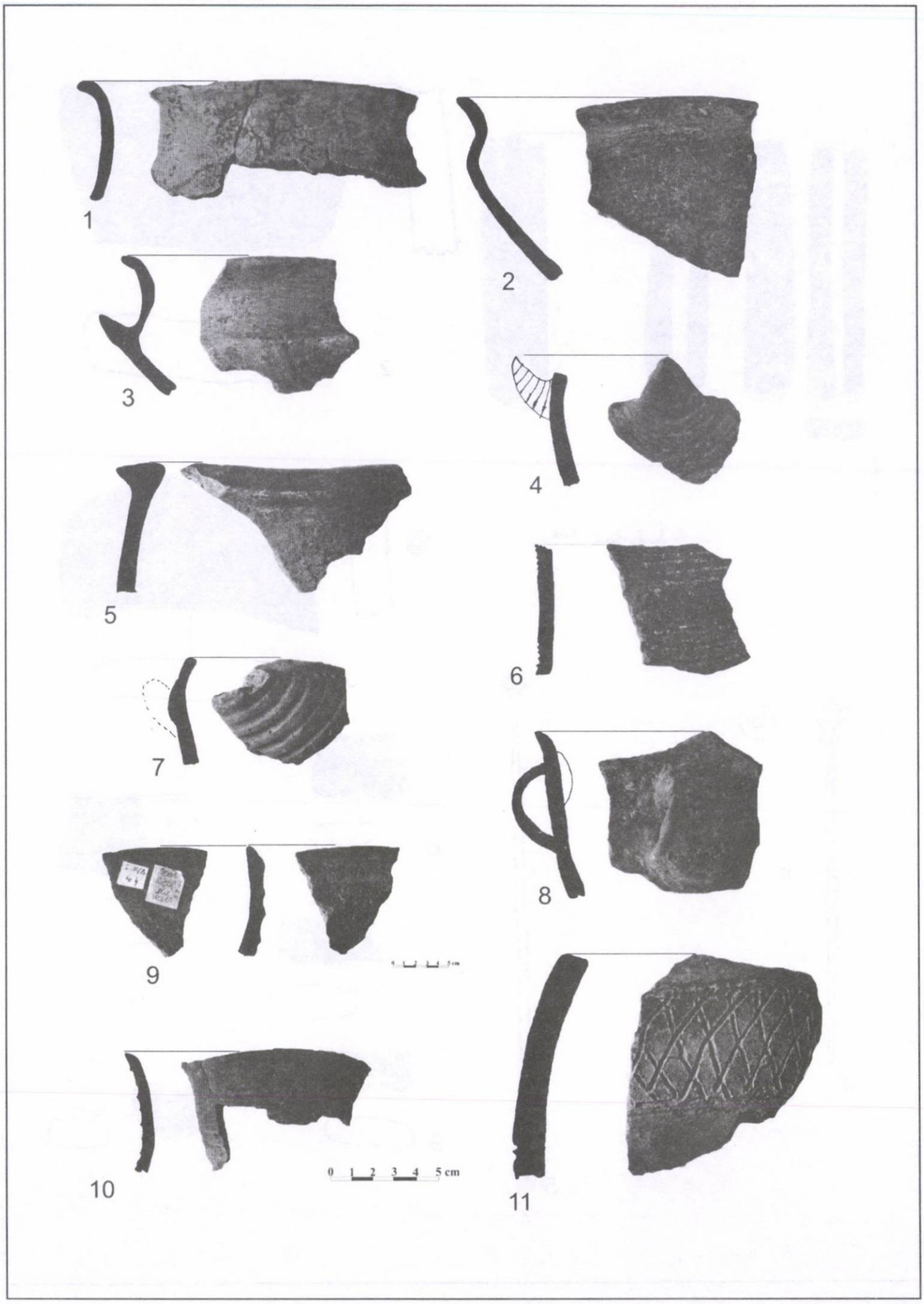


Plate XV. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

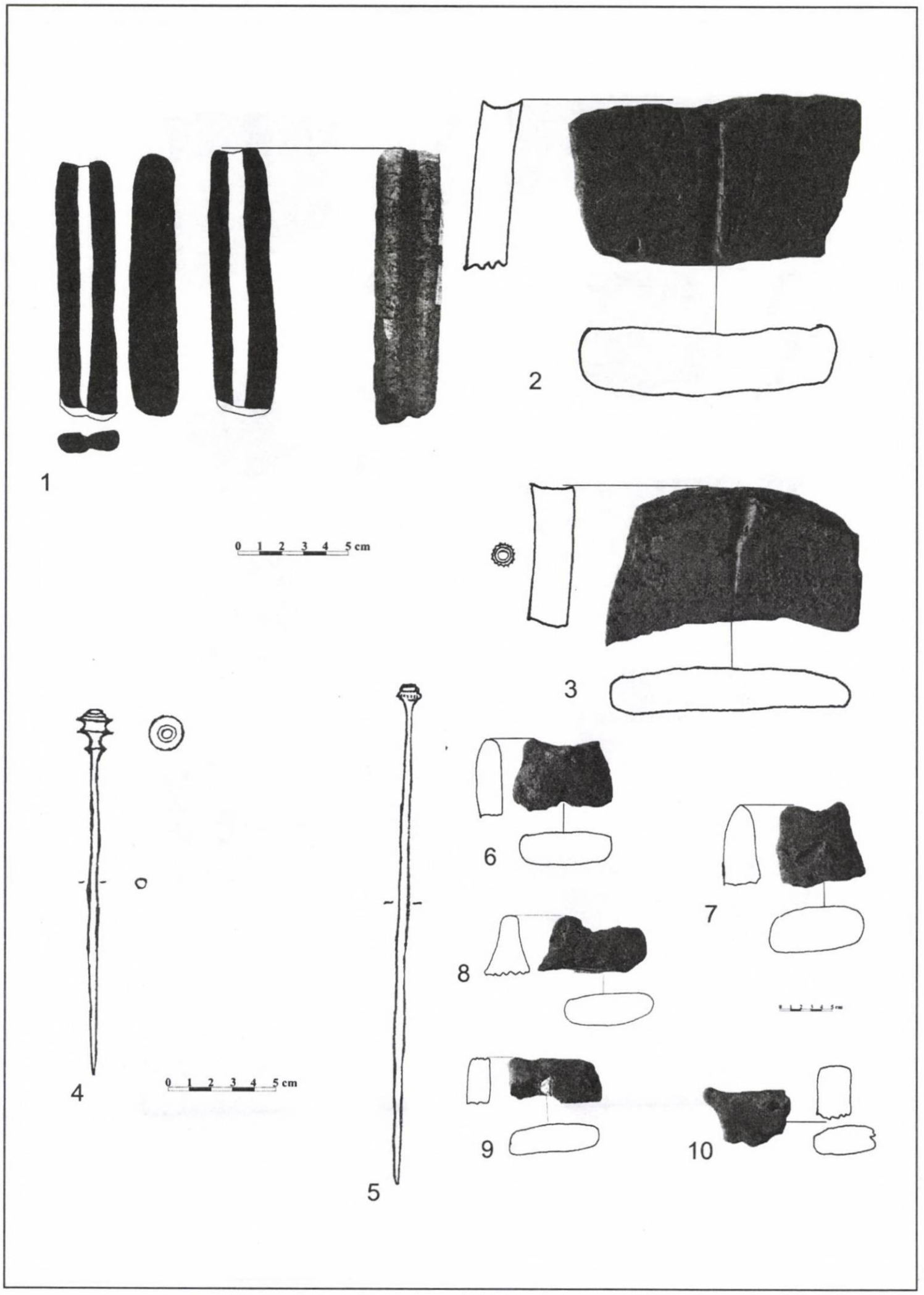


Plate XVI. 1-3 Mould valves; 4-5 Bronz needles; 6-7 Clay artifacts; from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

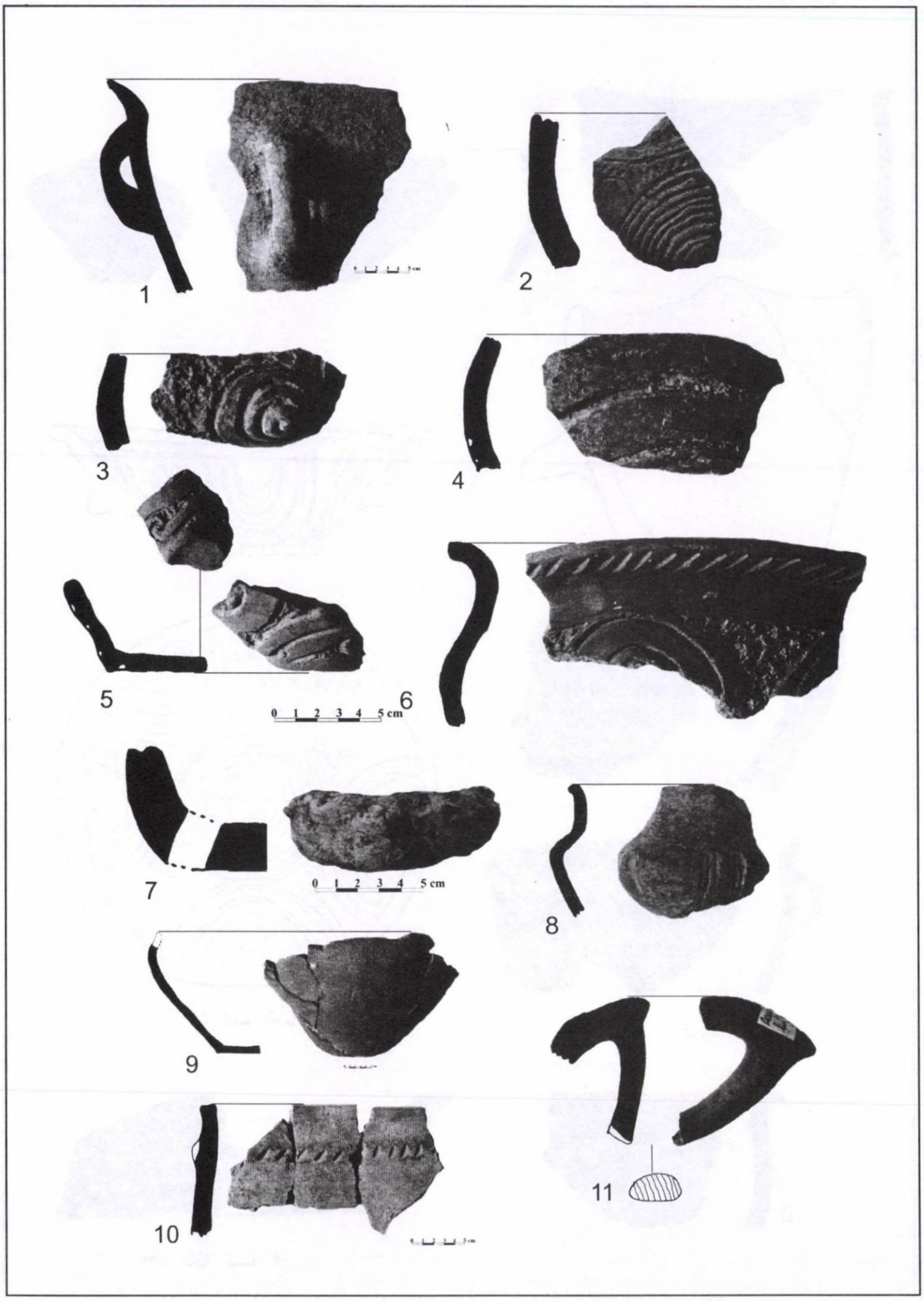


Plate XVII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

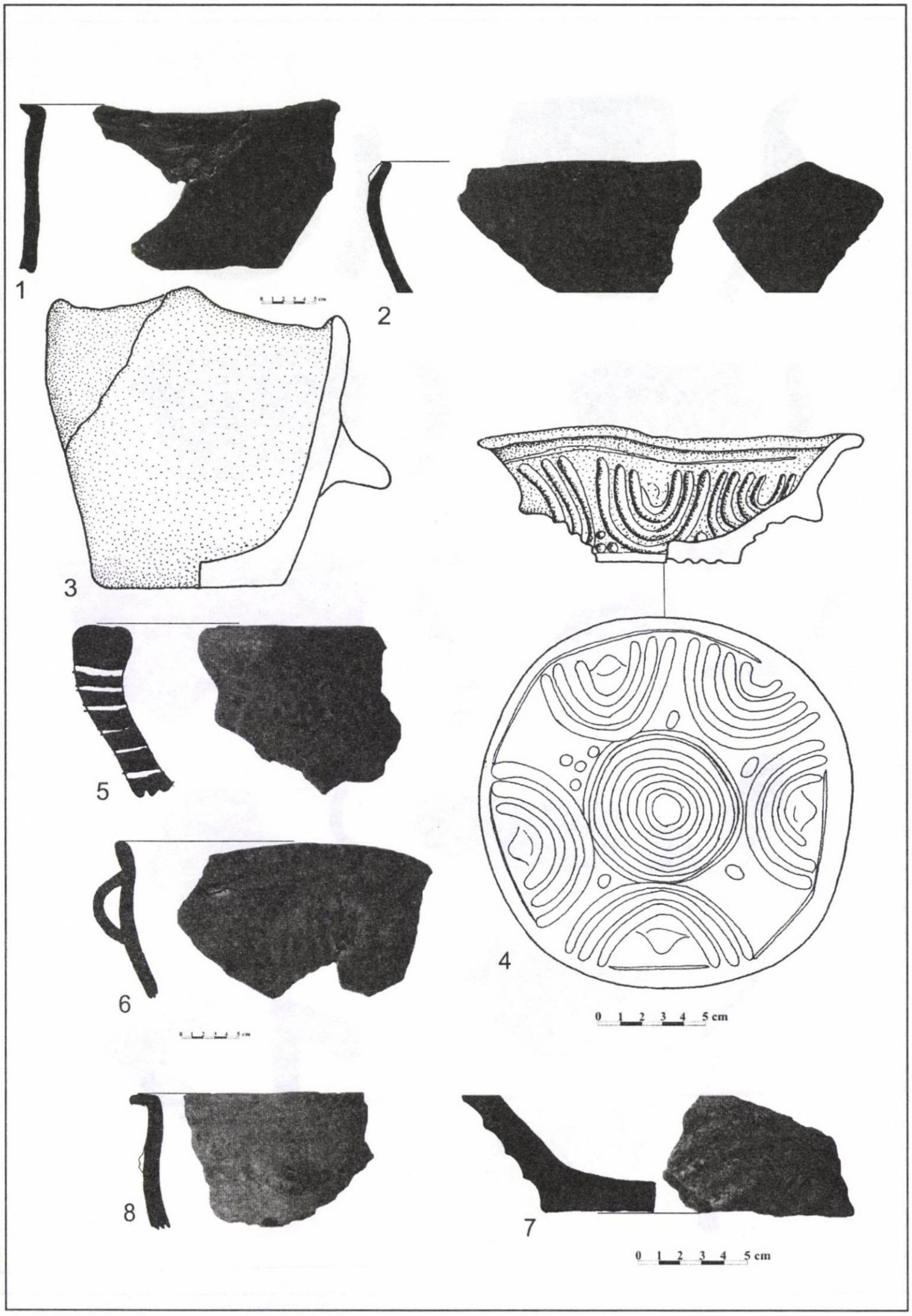


Plate XVIII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

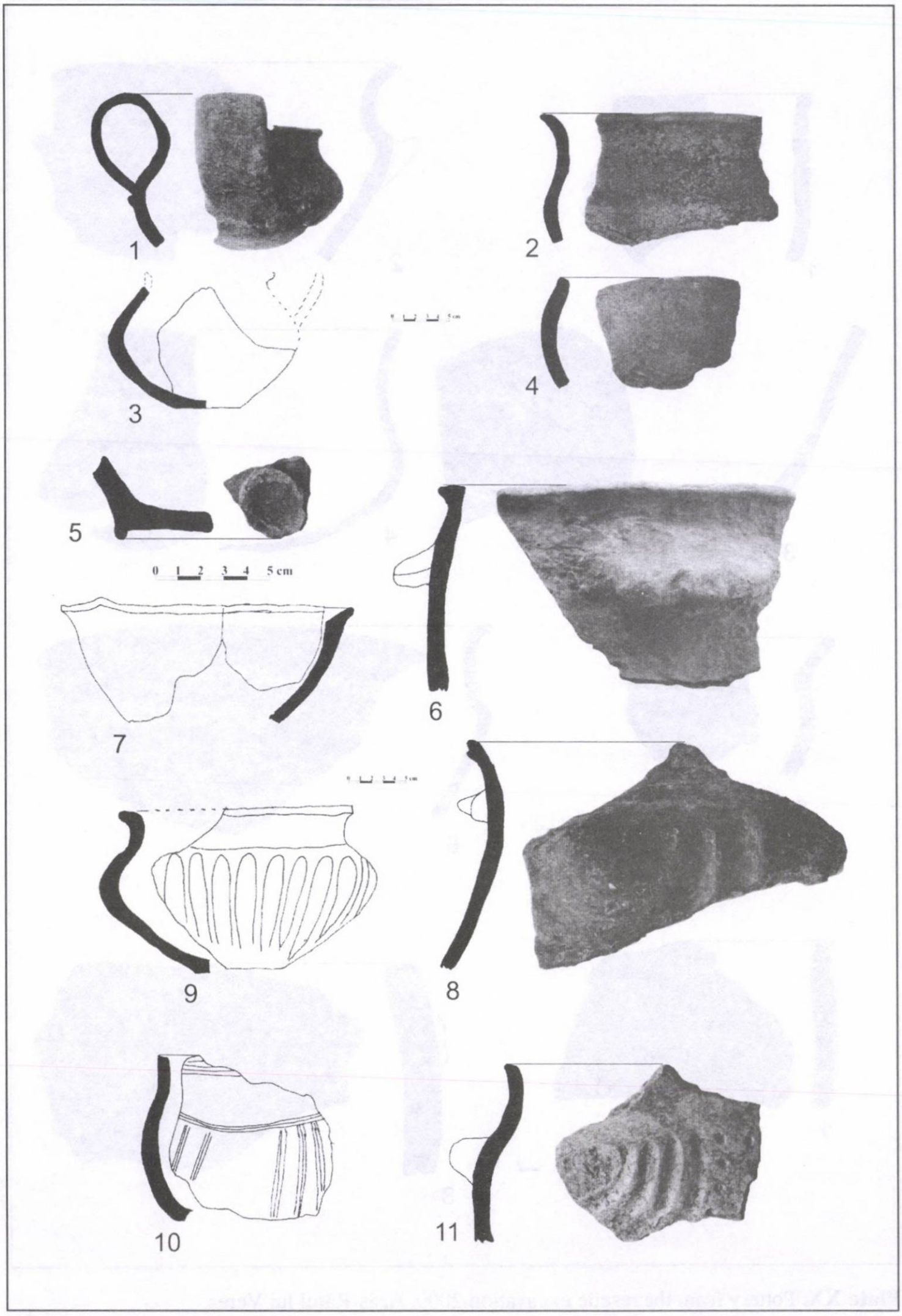


Plate XIX. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

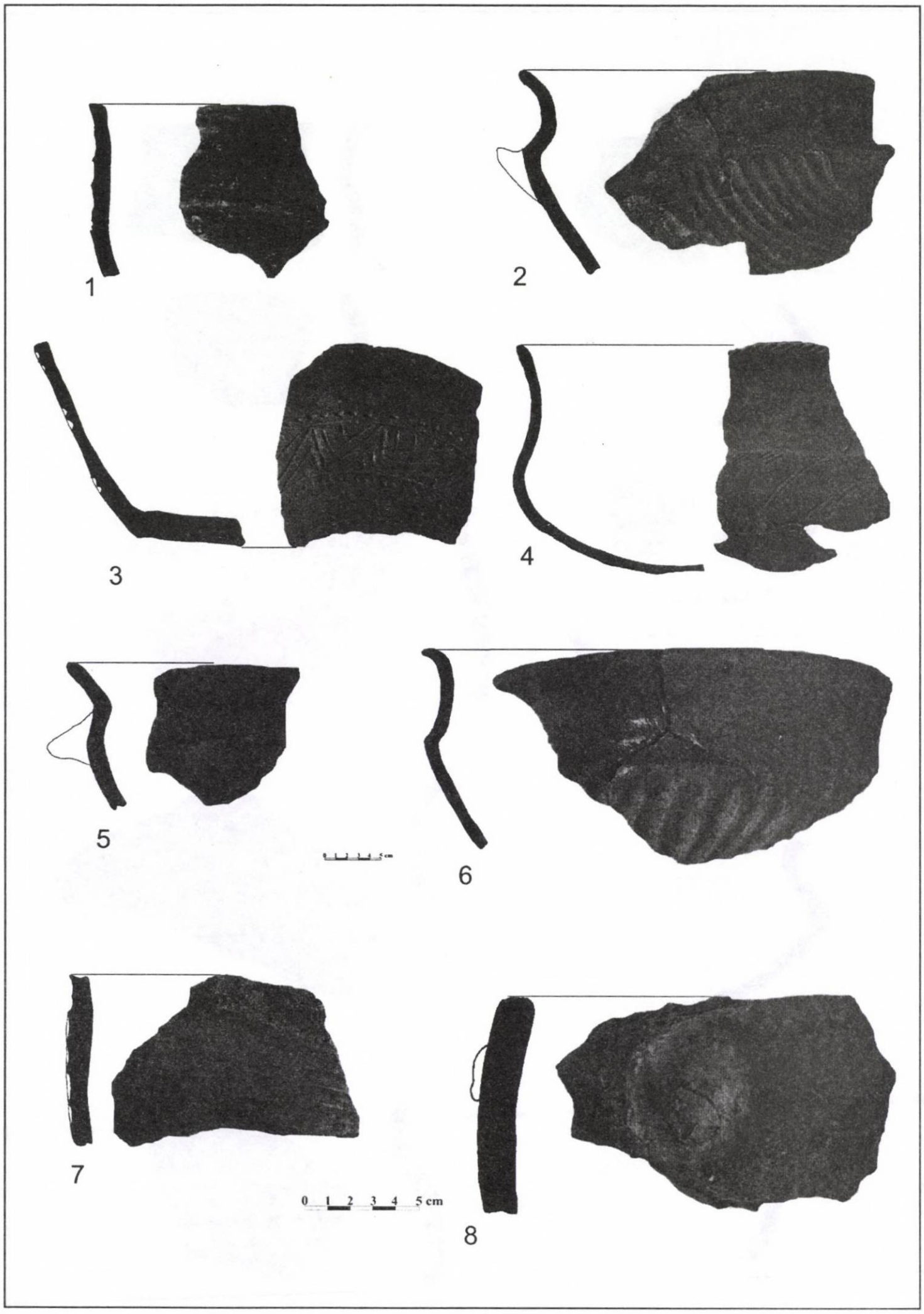


Plate XX. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

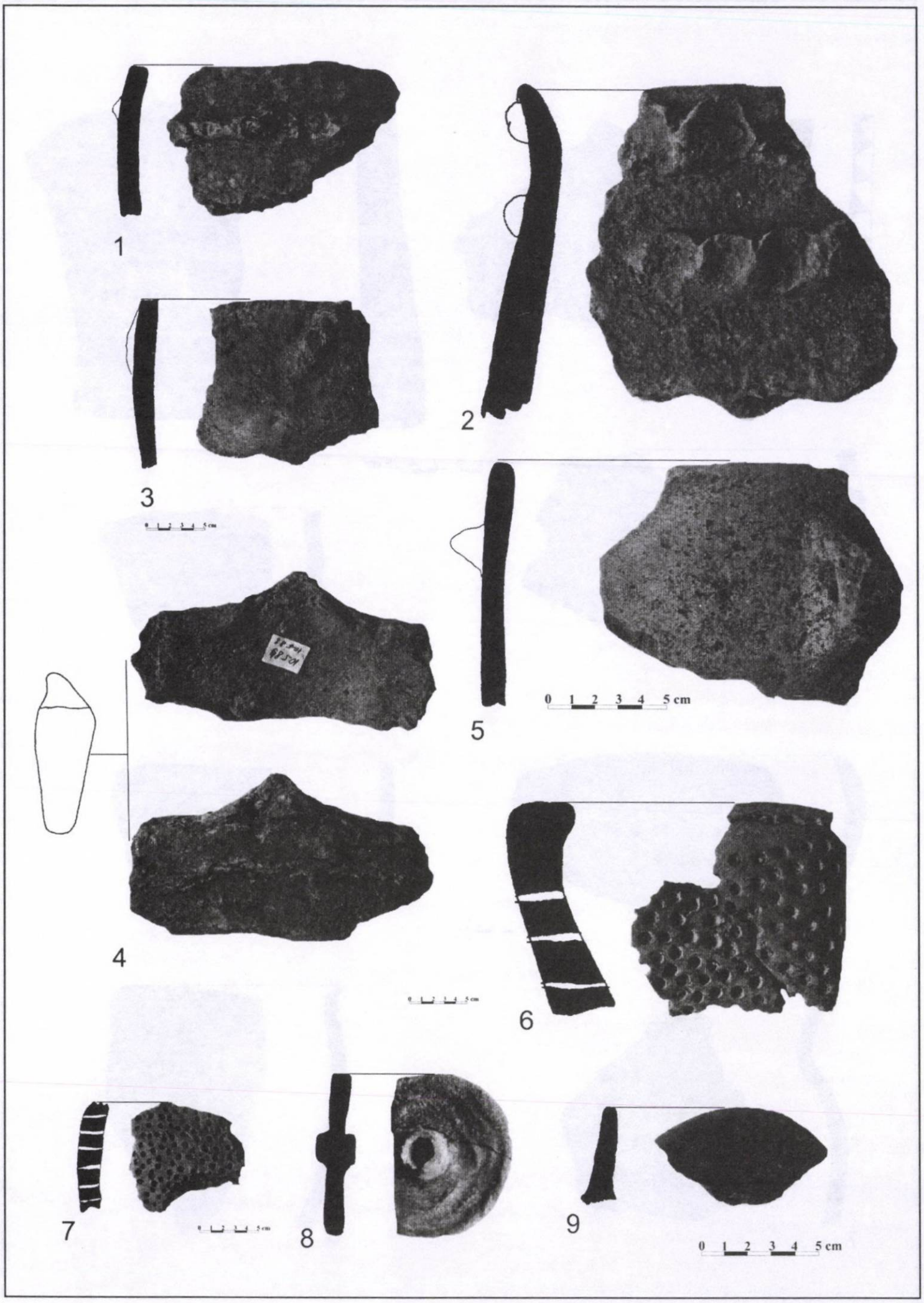


Plate XXI. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

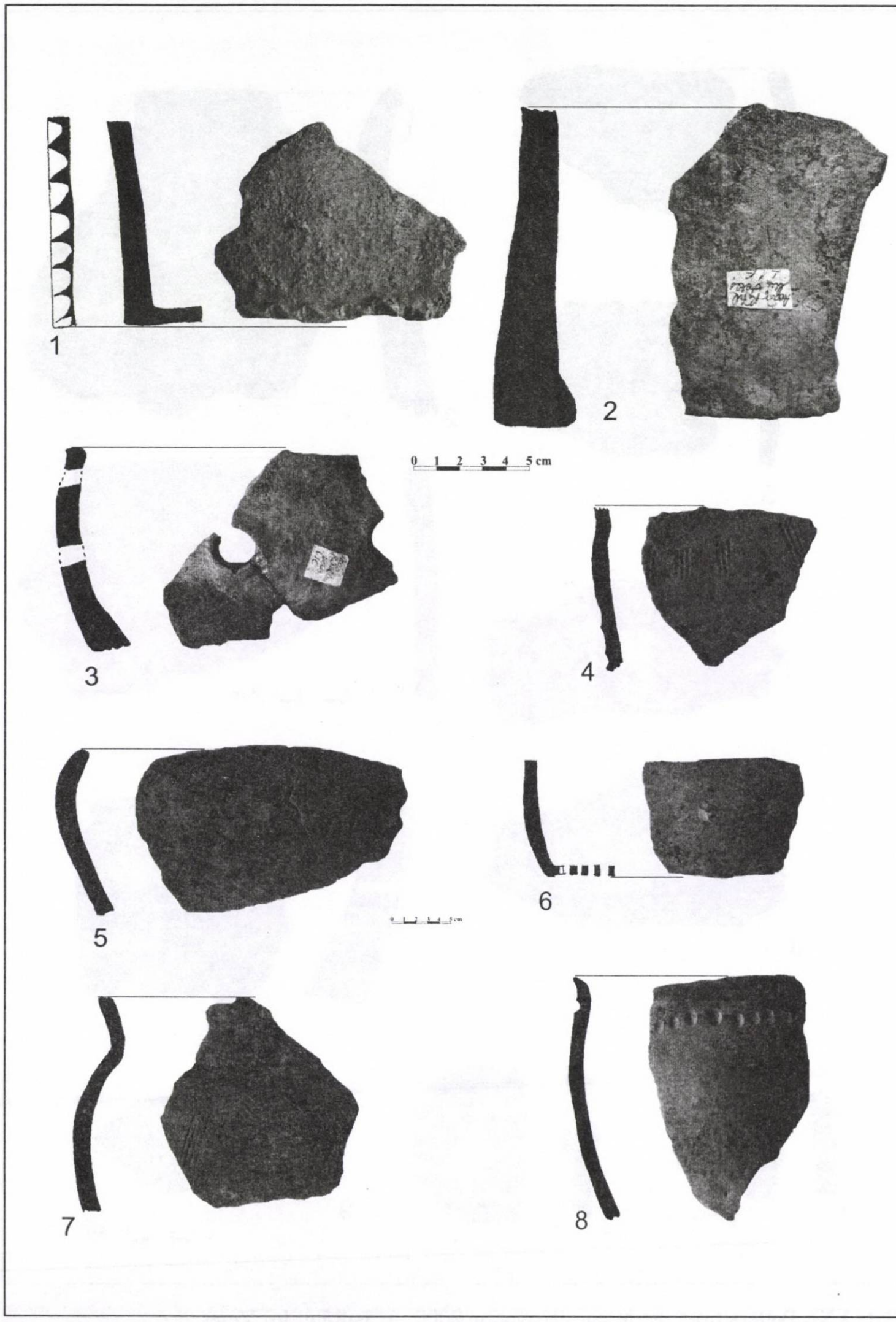


Plate XXII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

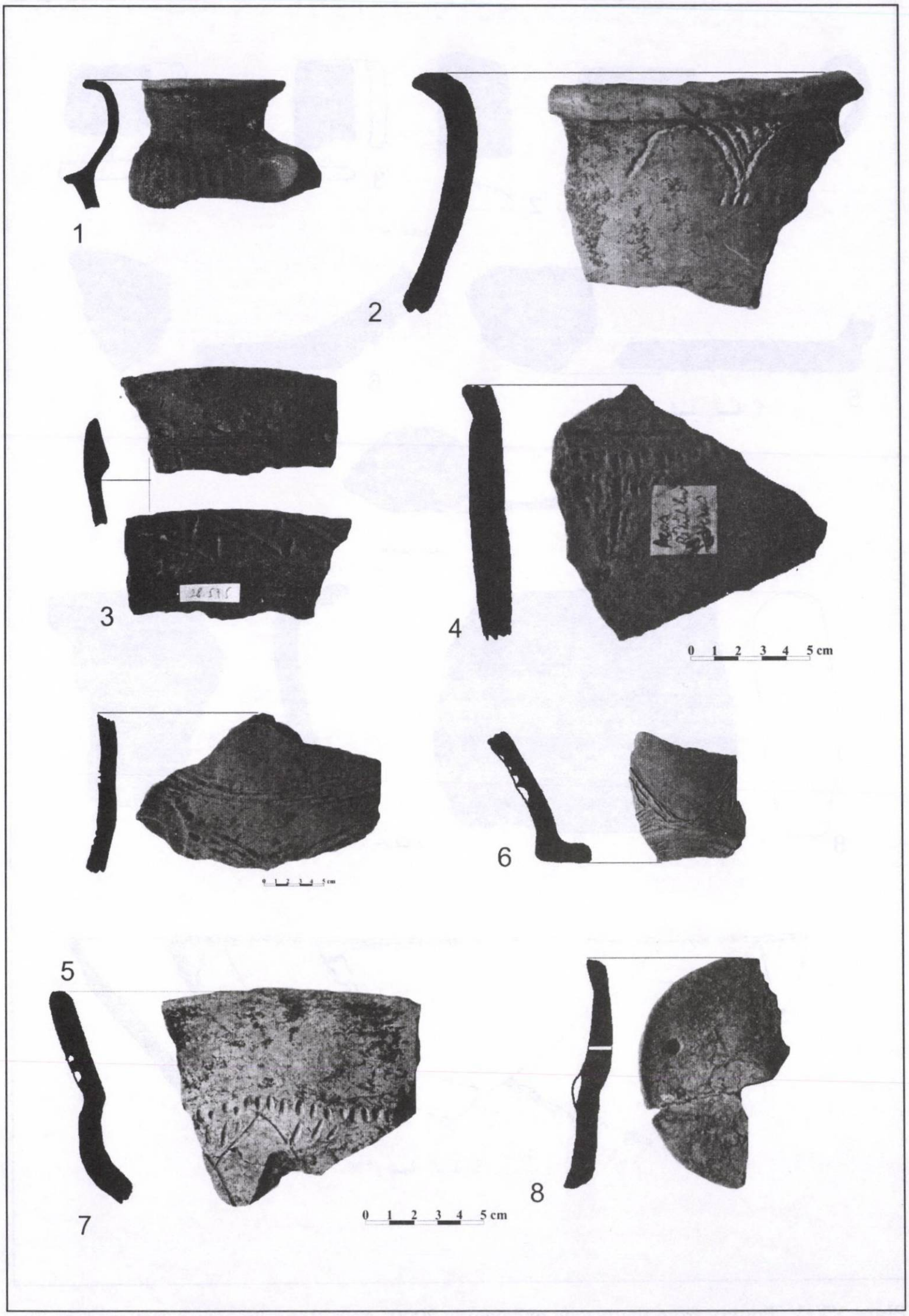


Plate XXIII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

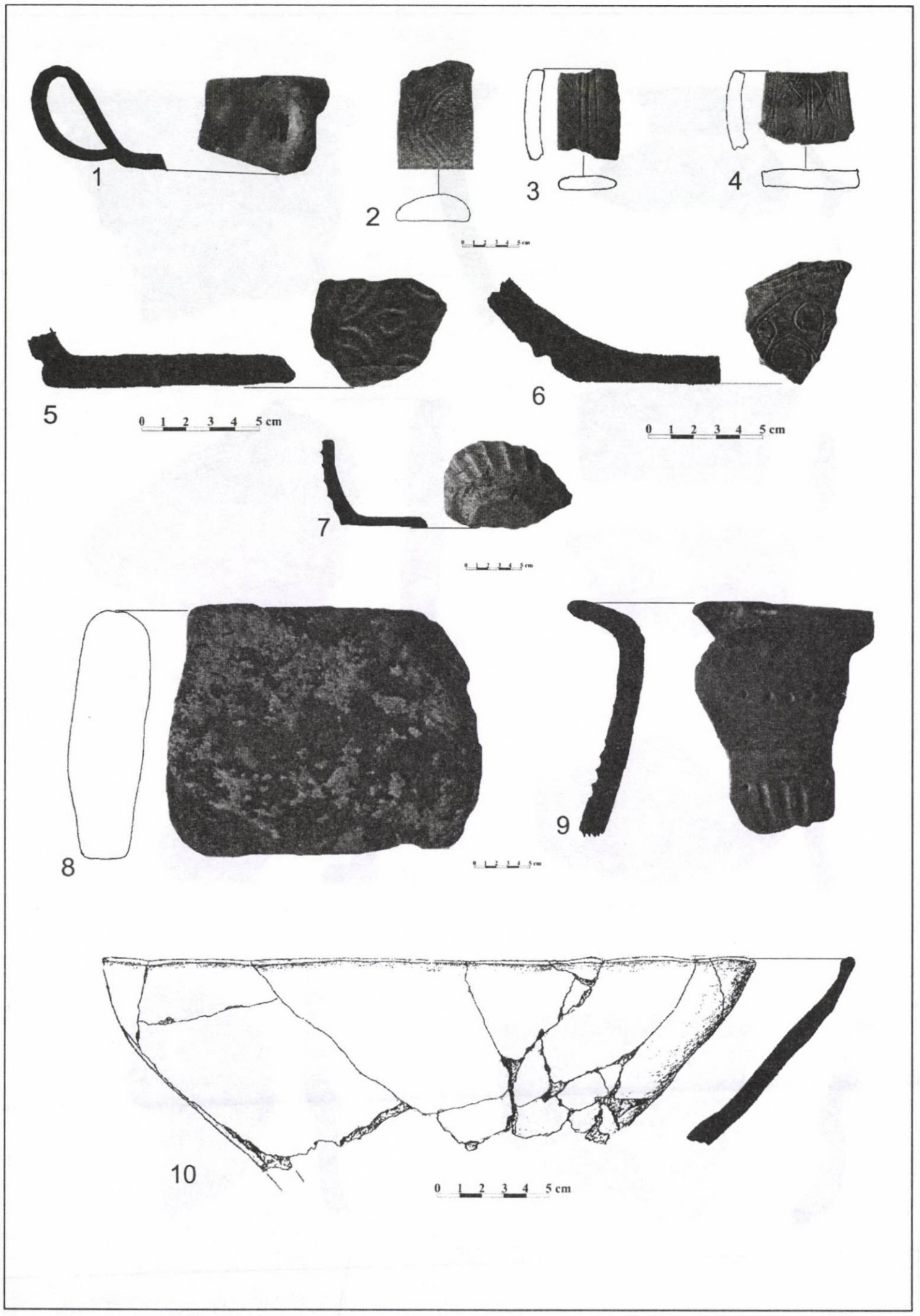


Plate XXIV. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Tăşnad sere (Parking zone).

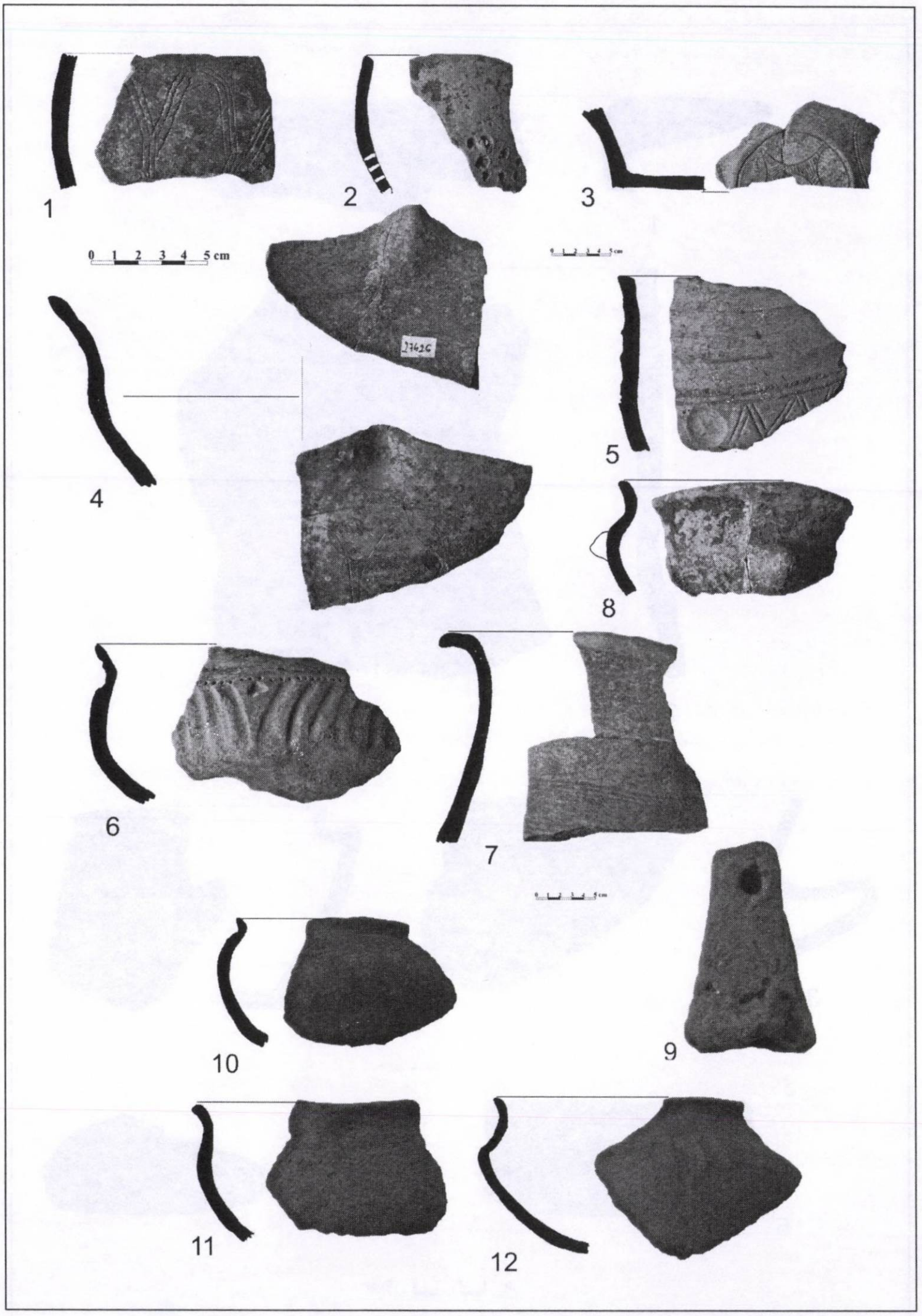


Plate XXV. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

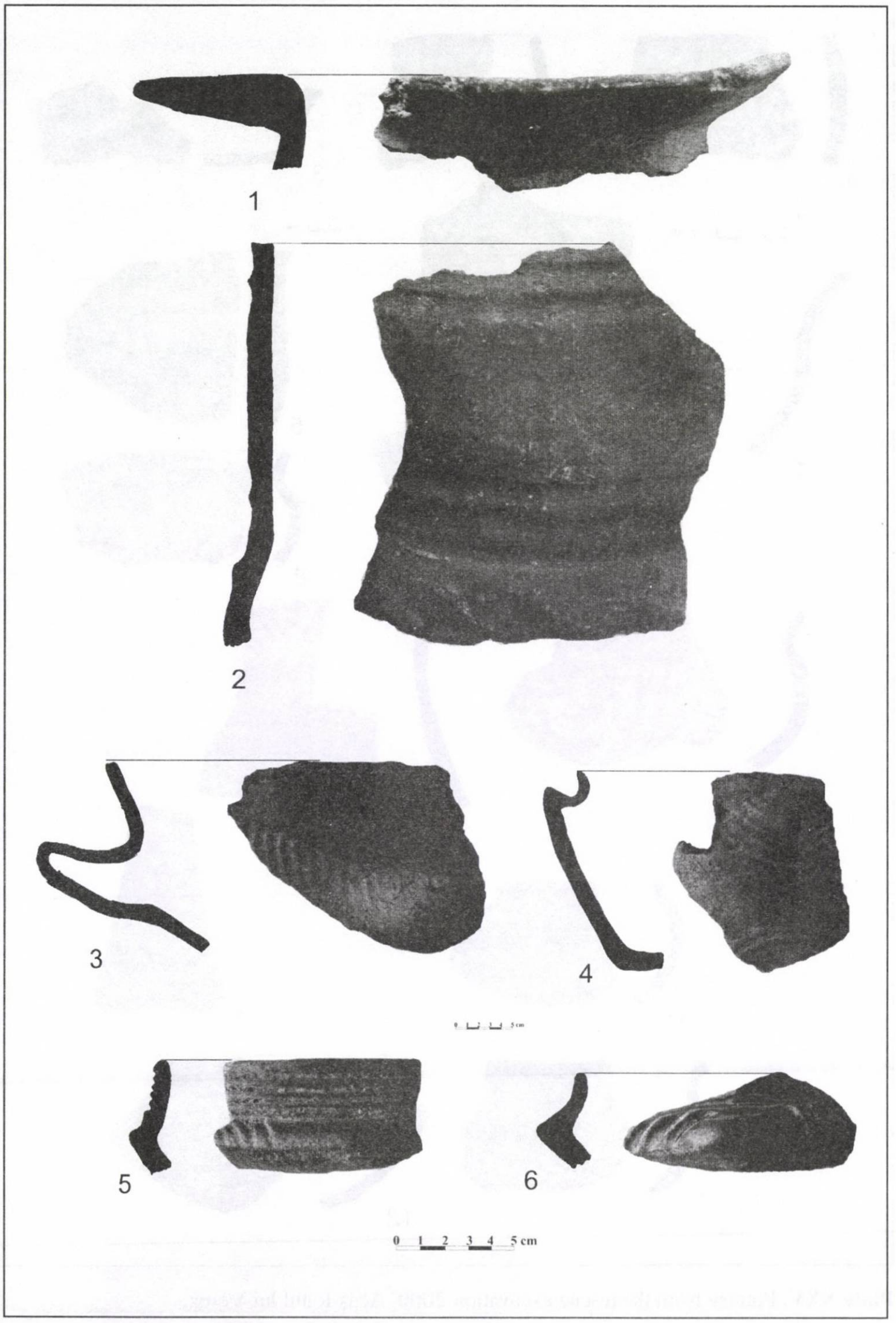


Plate XXVI. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

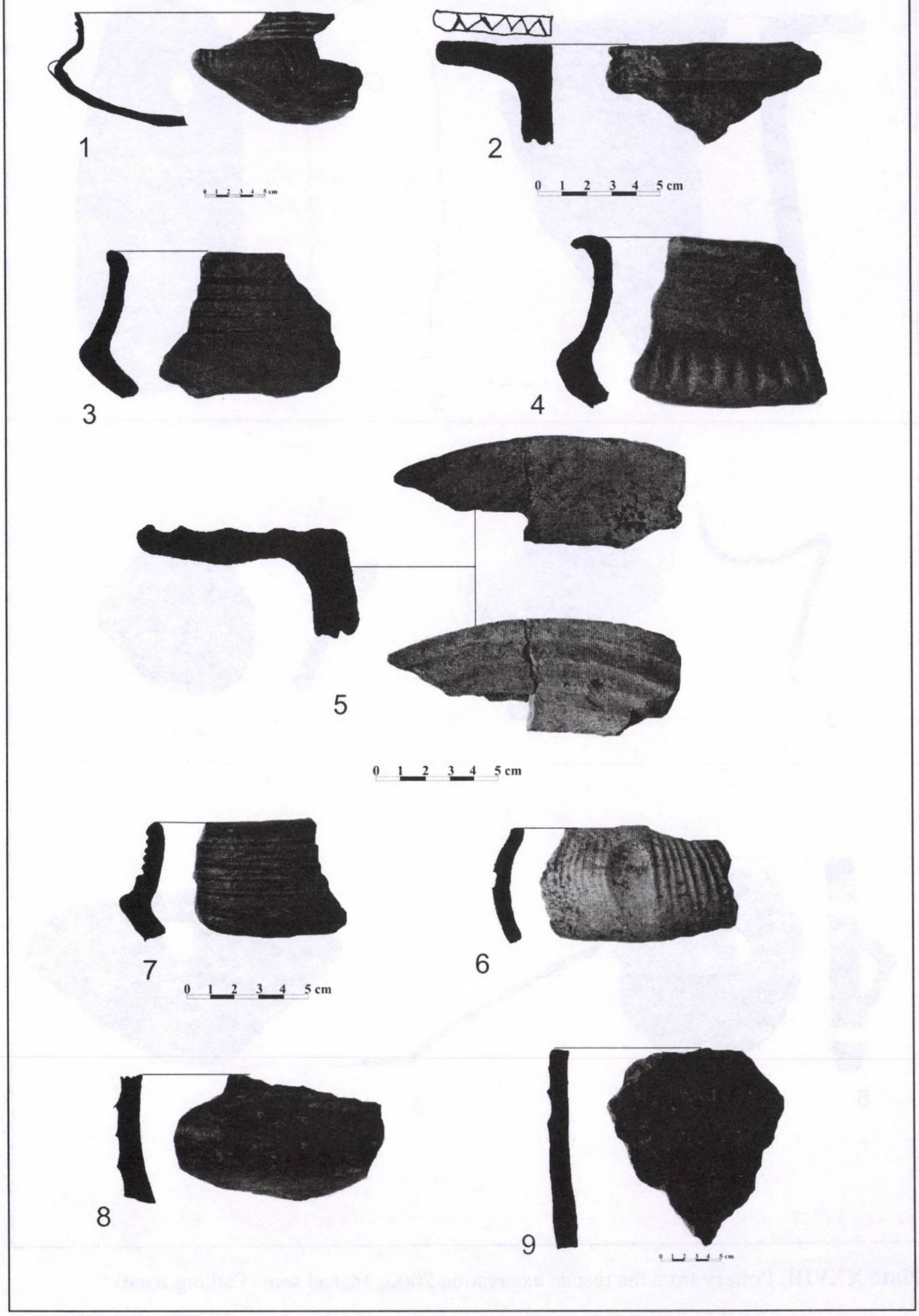


Plate XXVII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Acâş-Râtul lui Veres.

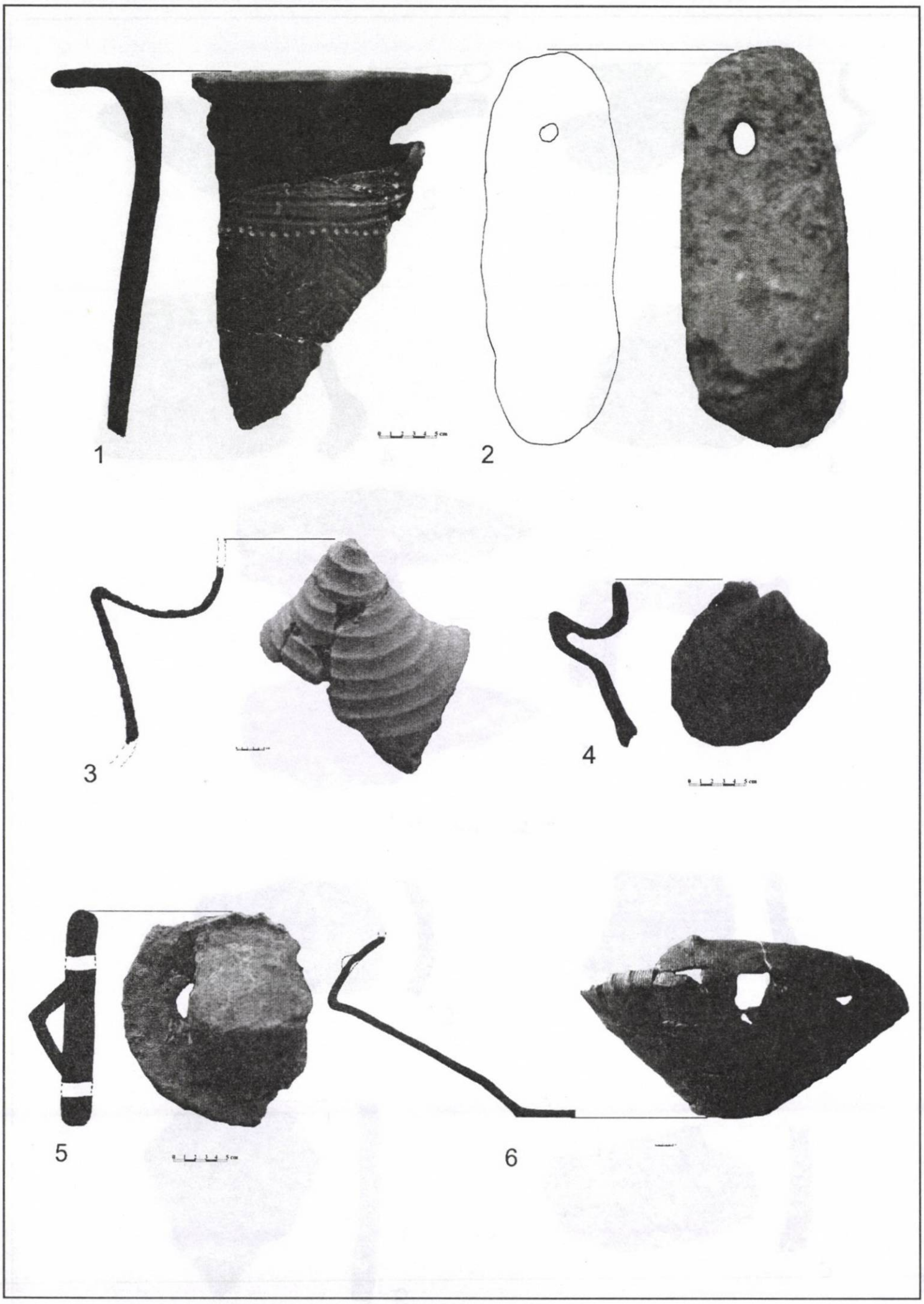


Plate XXVIII. Pottery from the rescue excavation 2000, Tăşnad sere (Parking zone).

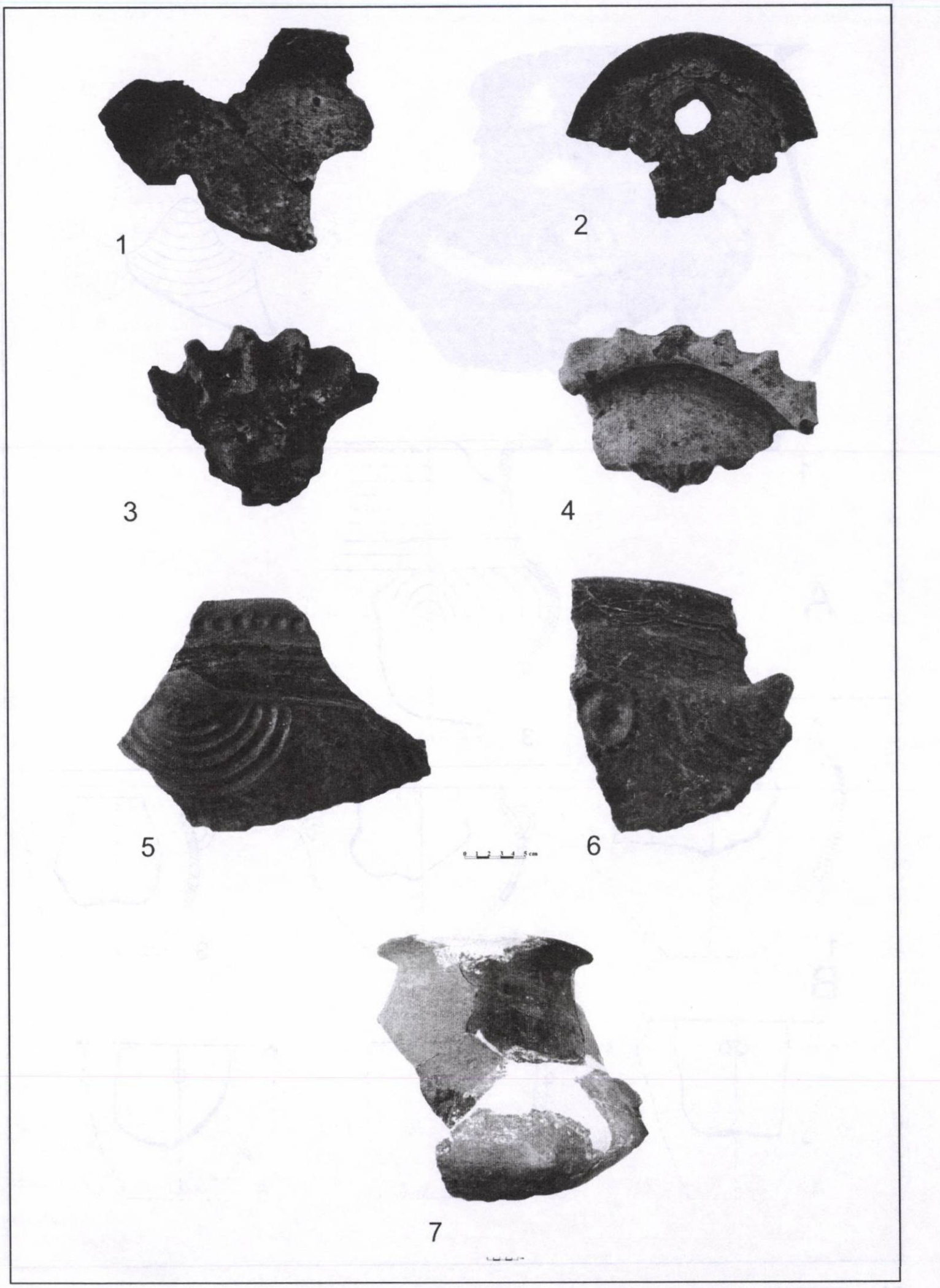


Plate XXIX. Pottery founded by Károly Valea lui Mihai – Lutărie nouă.

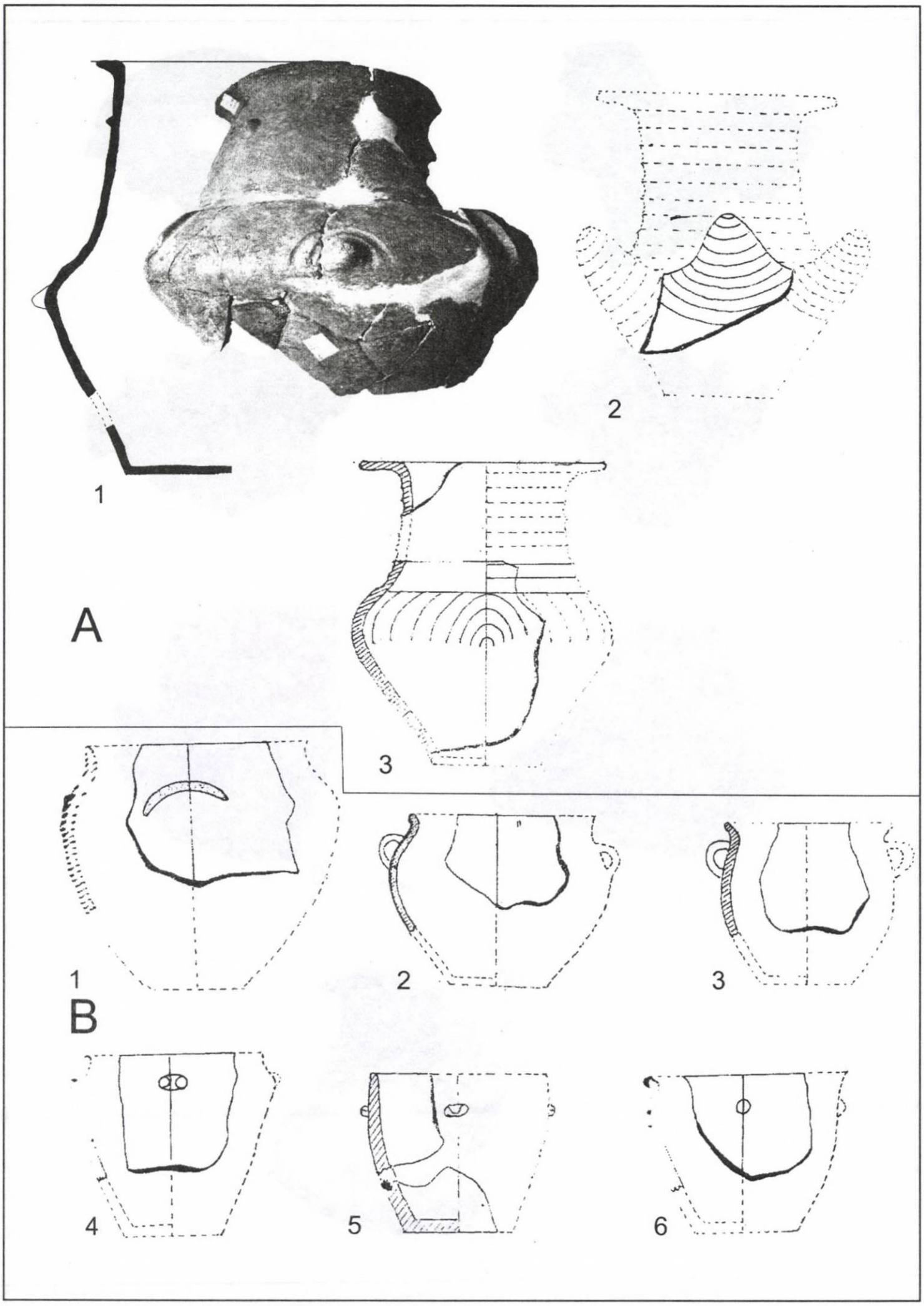


Plate XXX. Typical plate A. 1-3. Bitronconical vessels; 1-6. Pots.

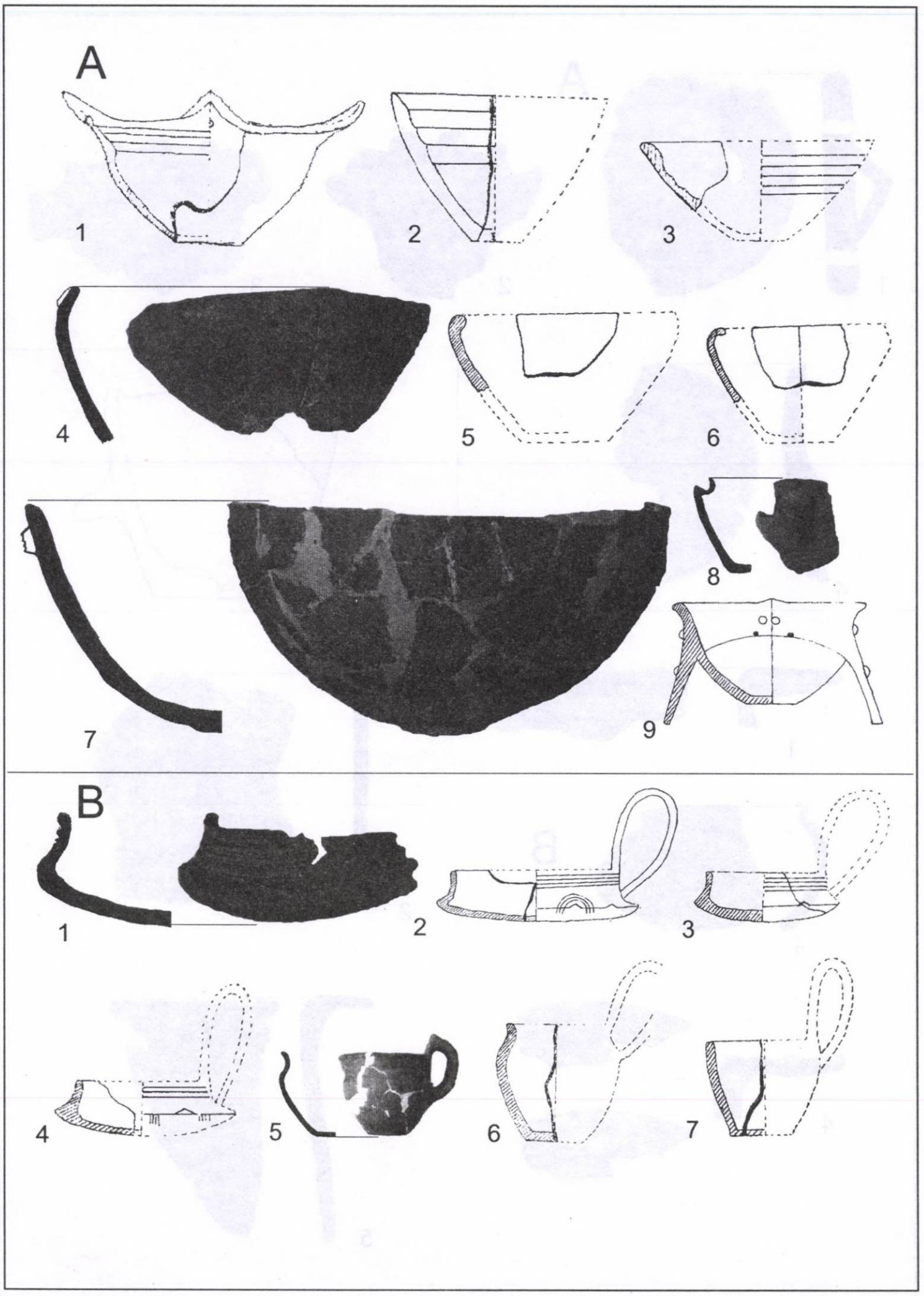


Plate XXXI. Typological plate A. 1-8. Bowls; 9. Portable cooking vessels; B. 1-7. Cups.

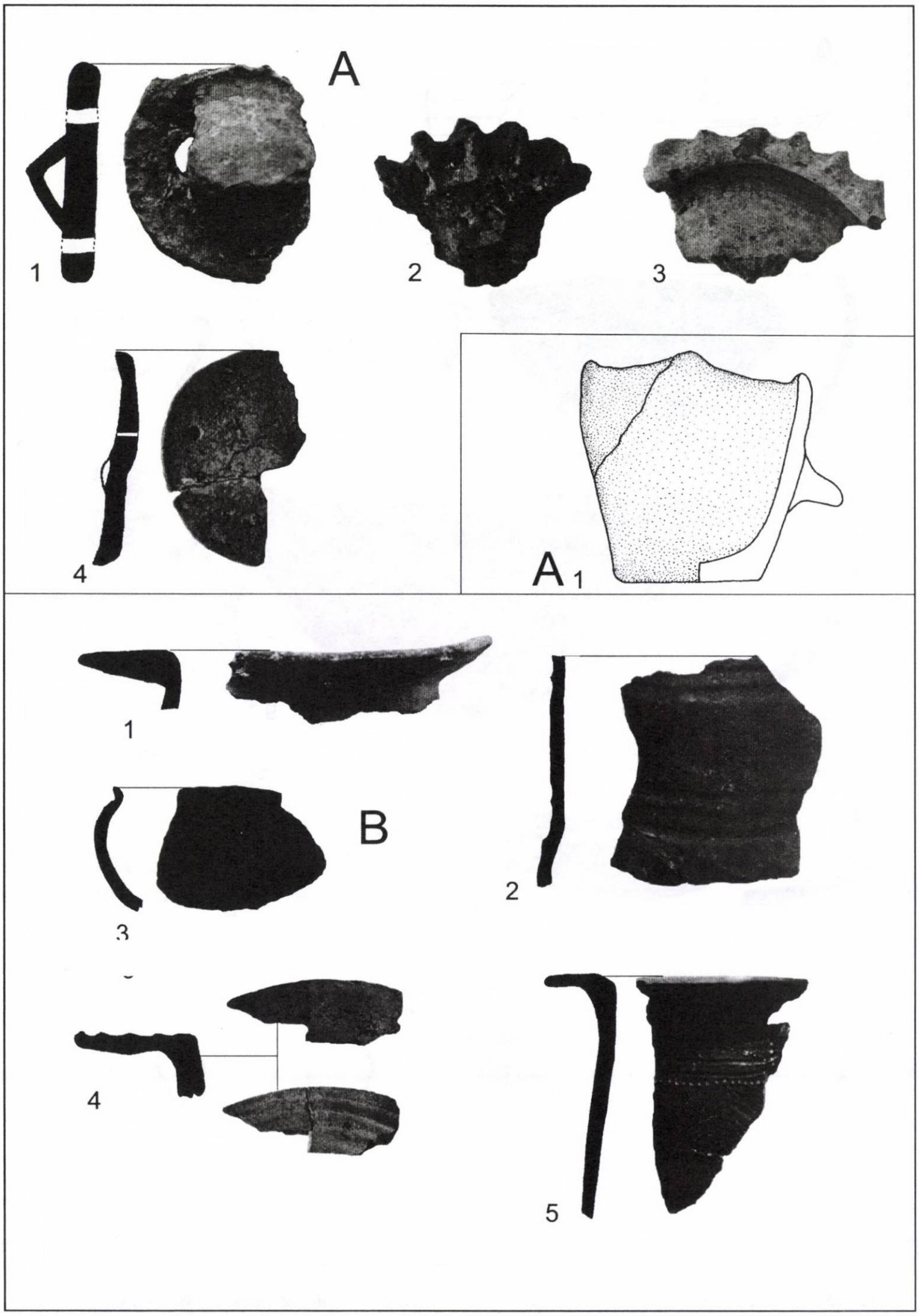


Plate XXXII. Typological plate A. 1-4. Lids; A1. Pot; B. 1-5. Storage vessels.

Lăpuş II – Gáva I Discoveries in the Plain of Satu Mare

Liviu Marta

The archaeological researches conducted over the last decade have led to the discovery of a new cultural horizon in the Plain of Satu Mare, dated in the late Bronze Age, after the end of Suciu de Sus culture and before the beginning of the fully shaped Gáva inhabitation horizon. The first identification of this cultural horizon was made based on the extensive archaeological excavations carried out in the settlements of Petea–Csengersima – *Vamă*[1] and Lazuri – *Lubi tag*. Its presence can be well observed in the materials discovered in the settlement of Culciu Mare – *Sub Grădini* as well. This cultural horizon, named Lăpuş II–Gáva I could also be identified on the occasion of some smaller scale archaeological researches undertaken in the sites of Dorolţ – *Pescărie/ Nagy Homokos* and Călineşti-Oaş – *Strada Horburilor* (Pl.1/1), based on the materials collected from the surface of some settlements[2]. The presentation of these late findings is likely to provide data on the composition of the inhabitation during the end of the 2nd millennium BC in the Plain of Satu Mare, providing connection elements with the Gáva I discoveries located to the west and to the north, respectively, with those of Lăpuş II type located to the east and to the south.

The settlement of Dorolţ – *Pescărie/ Nagy Homokos* was investigated when arranging a small lake for fishing at its border. It is located on the terrace of a dried-up valley, on which a small lake was arranged in the spring of 2001. The small-scale rescue archaeological research aimed at investigating a small area (24 x 4 m). A refuse pit (Pl. 2/A) and a part of a burnt-clay platform, originated probably from a fired dwelling (Pl. 3/10-12) were researched in the uncovered surface. Both the archaeological complexes had a rich inventory. Judging from some specific shapes of vessels - the large, big-bellied amphora with hypertrophied protuberances and the low cup with greatly over-raised handle - they can be attributed to the horizon Lăpuş II – Gáva I. Ceramic fragments with excised decoration, of the Suciu de Sus IIa type[3], originate from the surface of this settlement.

The archaeological site of Călineşti-Oaş is located on *Horburilor* Street, no. 473. Its existence was reported by Mr. Gavrău Vasile, the landowner. In the spring of 2006, he notified the County Museum of Satu Mare of the discovery of some pottery shards while performing some agricultural works. After checking them out, in the spring of 2006, we found that the materials brought to the surface originated from a single amphora. The area where the amphora was discovered was located on a gentle slope going down from the south-west foot of Hediu Mare Hill (Pl. 1/B). On May 1, 2006 along with Dan Pop and Zoltán Kádas, we opened a cassette of 2 x 3 m, in the impression of which we found two small pits (Pl. 2A / cas.1). The first of them contained fragments of the amphora that were partially removed by the discoverer (Pl. 5/1), while in the second one a half bowl was buried (Pl. 5/2). A year later, on March 12, 2007, Mr. Gavrău Vasile informed us that, while digging with a spade, he found again pottery fragments and a grinder. On March 16, 2007, a cassette was opened (Pl. 2/cas. 2), in which a small pit was discovered containing objects deposited into a vessel preserved up to the area of its maximum diameter[4]. Three larger-size archeological surveys were conducted in the period July 28 to August 4, 2007[5], in order to establish the nature of the deposit (Pl. 2/S1, S2, S3). No other archaeological remains were discovered, except for some ceramic fragments present in the agricultural layer. On March 21, 2008 a new cassette was opened to the south of the previously studied area (Pl. 2/cas. 2)[6]. Four small pits were outlined below the agricultural

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[1] Marta 2009, p. 54-93.
[2] Botiz–Togul Călugăriţelor/Apácza Tag, Roşiori–Teglărie, Valea Vinului–Valea Lipăuţului.
[3] Marta 2002, p. 128.
[4] The archeological excavations were performed by R. Gindele, A. Ciprian, Z. Kádas and L. Marta.
[5] The researches were attended by a group of volunteers from I. Slavici and M. Eminescu High Schools of Satu Mare, coordinated by their teacher, Octavian Onac.
[6] The research team consisted of Babolcs Andrea, Mester Andrea, Kádas Zoltán and Liviu Marta.

layer, 25 cm deep, three of them containing fragments of vessels that were partially damaged by the agricultural works (complexes 4, 5 and 6).

Description of the archeological complexes:

Complex 1 – pit with round mouth, diameter of 60 cm, curved walls and bottom (maximum depth 20 cm) (Pl. 2). 49 ceramic fragments from the same amphora with those discovered by the owner (Pl. 5/1) were discovered in it. The exterior of the ceramic fragments is brick-like colored, with black spots and it is decorated with wide channels and ribs. It is not certain that the vessel was complete at the time of its deposition.

Complex 2 - pit with oval mouth (70 x 50 cm), detected at a depth of 25 cm (Pl. 2). The filling was brown-gray, with traces of ash and charcoal. The pit walls are slightly curved and the flat bottom occurs at a depth of 30 cm from the outline. Pottery fragments which reconstruct half of a deep bowl were deposited in the pit (Pl. 5/2).

Complex 3 – pit outlined at a depth of 25 cm. It used to contain the remains of an amphora buried in a vertical, upside down position (Pl. 2). The dimensions of the pit were similar to those of the amphorae deposited in it. The vessel, placed in an *in situ* position was preserved in the area located under the maximum diameter (Pl. 6/6). Numerous ceramic shards broken away from the amphorae were scattered nearby. Inside the vessel, in its upper part, there were fragments of two pots made of a porous paste (Pl. 6/1, 4). North of them, also inside of the amphora, there was a whole hand grinder (a fragment broke away while digging the land (Pl. 6/3). Another grinder was previously removed by the owner, while performing some agricultural works (Pl. 6/2). After removing the vessels, it was found that the pit had dimensions almost similar to those of the large amphorae in which the other objects were placed.

1.20 m south of the amphora found in the complex 3, at a depth of 15 to 30 cm, there was an accumulation of small sized stones and pottery fragments (diam. 5-10 cm). They were arranged in an approximately rectangular area with the dimensions of 120 x 30-40 cm.

Complex 4 – a 45 cm diameter pit, with curved walls. 48 ceramic shards originated from the lower part of an amphora, which could be restored only partially, were preserved in this pit (Pl. 5/3). The fragments of its upper part, numerous and small, suggest that the vessel was destroyed during the agricultural work (Pl.2). The lower part of the amphora was deposited on the bottom of the pit, with dimensions identical to those of the vessel.

Complex 5 – a 40 cm diameter pit, with 29 ceramic shards originated from an amphora deposited in a fragmentary state (Pl. 5/4). The pit also contained a ceramic fragment originating from the leg of a portable cooking vessel.

Complex 6 – agglomeration of pottery fragments originating from one vessel. They were located at 25 cm depth, immediately beneath the agricultural layer.

Complex 7 – pit identified in the sterile soil (-23 cm). It used to have a slightly oval mouth (56 x 47 cm), brown filling, with a lot of clay-and-straw mortar and fragments of burnt wood. The pit walls, oblique or slightly curved used to go 16 to 18 cm deep and the bottom of the pit used to be flat.

The vast majority of the vessels and objects discovered at Călineşti-Oaş were deposited in small sized pits. In four of the cases, the pits were dug in order to place vessels (or parts of vessels) on their bottom, in an upright position (three amphorae and a bowl). The upper parts of the amphorae were probably destroyed during the agricultural work. Pit no. 4 contained fragments of an amphora, deposited piled up. The lack of any trace of a settlement in the discoveries area removes the possibility of considering the archaeological complexes of Călineşti-Oaş as ritual deposits in settlements, such as those discovered in other sites from the same timeline frame[7].

But the lack of human bones makes it difficult to clearly link the findings of Călineşti-Oaş with the funeral field. It must be noted, however, that this interpretation cannot be completely excluded because the human bones are missing from most of the tumuli during the 2nd phase of Lăpuş necropolis, too. A large number of small pits containing whole or partially replenishable vessels (sometimes with the upper part cut off) are present in some of

[7] Stapel 1999, p. 104-106;V. Szabó 2004, p. 86; Marta 2007; Marta 2009, p. 47.

the type 3 tumuli of Lăpuş[8]. The whole or fragmented grinders are well represented in the necropolis of Lăpuş or in the ritual deposit of Libotin[9]. The lack of tumulus from Călineşti-Oaş may be due either to its absence from the very beginning or to its destruction due to repeated agricultural works, as in the case of the discovery of Libotin[10].

The Cultural and Chronological Frame of the Discoveries

The materials found in the presented sites contain elements specific for the pottery present during the end of Reinecke Bz D stage, Ha A stage respectively in the Plain of Satu Mare. This pottery has close analogies with the early Gáva pottery in northeastern Hungary and northwestern Romania (the Plain of Carei), respectively with the pottery of Lăpuş II type located towards south-east (the Depression of Lăpuş and the Valley of Sălaj). Part of the vessels are brick-like colored on the inside and black on the outside (Pl. 3/2, 5, 10-12, 5/4), only a limited number of dishes/bowls being black on the inside and brick-like colored on the outside (Pl. 3/6, 4/2,3). One of the most specific shape for this type of discoveries is the amphora with wide rim, cylindrical neck decorated with wide horizontal channels (Pl. 3/10, 5/1), sometimes provided with small handles (Pl. 3/10). The hypertrophied protuberances (Pl. 3/2.10 to 12, 5/1,4, and 6/6) are specific for the amphorae in the I-st phase of Gáva culture[11], the cultural group Lăpuş (phase II), respectively[12]. In the Plain of Satu Mare, they are present in the settlements of Petea–Csengersima[13] and Lazuri[14]. This decorative element is found on amphorae of Gáva II phase, on a limited number, however[15]. Instead, handles like those appearing on the upper part of the amphora of Dorolţ (Pl. 3/10), are present only in the Gáva I şi Lăpuş II[16] type pottery. As with other vessels assigned to Gáva I or Lăpuş II, the pottery discovered in the sites of Satu Mare have as specific decoration the wide horizontal channels on the neck or the vertical and oblique ones on the body. The associated presence of the structural and ornamental elements on the same vessel is likely to provide a dating of the amphorae during a period corresponding to the first phase of Gáva culture[17]. None of the amphorae on the sites assigned to Lăpuş II–Gáva I horizon contains ornaments specific for the Gáva II phase in the Plain of Satu Mare: registers of narrow channels, arranged in garland, horizontally, vertically or obliquely.

Another shape characteristic for the Lăpuş II–Gáva I inhabitation horizon is represented by the bowls with thickened inner rim, sometimes decorated with horizontal channels (Pl. 3/ 6.8 4/2.3). It has been found that this type of ware represents 50.8% of the total number of vessels present in the complexes of the Petea-Csengersima settlement[18]. Bowls / terrines with thickened inner lip are present in a large number in the Lăpuş II[19] or Gáva I[20] type discoveries. The bowls with thickened inner lip continued to be used only on the early sites of Gáva II phase, but to a much smaller extent than in the sites of Gáva II phase[21].

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[8] Kacsó 1990, p. 89.
[9] Kacsó 1990, p. 81, 89, pl. 11/5.
[10] Kacsó 1990, p. 91.
[11] Gávavencselő and Nagykálló (Kemenzei 1984, pl. 129/1, 130/1-2,7, 131/10,15, 133/1), Vajdacska (Kemenczei 1981, p. 151-159; Mozsolics 1985, p. 210-211, pl 158/1a-b), Borša (Demeterová 1986, pl. II/4), Berveni and Carei (Németi 1990 fig. 6/1, 13/1).
[12] Lăpuş (Kacsó 2001, pl. 12-15).
[13] Marta 2009, pl. 4/8.
[14] Marta 2007, pl. 1. 8.
[15] Poroszló (Patay 1976, pl. 2/1, Teleac (Vasiliev–Aldea–Ciugudean 1991, fig. 29/9,13-14,18), Grăniceşti (László 1994 fig. 29/7), Mediaş (Pankau 2004, pl. 31/13, 48/6,7).
[16] Nagykálló (Kemenczei 1984, pl. 130/1,3-4), Tiszakeszi (Kemenczei 1984, pl, 134/14), Lăpuş (Kacsó 2001, pl. 20), Lazuri (Marta 2007, pl.1.8), Petea–Csengersima (Marta 2009, pl. 9/1).
[17] Vasiliev 2008, p. 9.
[18] Marta 2009, p. 70.
[19] Libotin (Kácsó 1990, pl. 9/7), Suciu de Sus–Pe şes (Kacsó 1993, pl. 1/4, 11, 7/3, 9/2, Kacsó 2003, pl. 1/1,12, 7/5, 9/6-8), Groşii Ţibleşului (Kacsó 2003, pl. 13/5), Lăpuş–Cioncaş (Kacsó2003, pl. 13/4), Lăpuş–Tinoasa (Kacsó 2003, pl. 8/6,7).
[20] Berveni (Németi 1990, pl. 5/2,4).
[21] Marta 2009, p. 70.

As in the case of the bowls, some of the pots of the Lăpuş II–Gáva I type discoveries have faceted rim (Pl. 4/4, 11). As decorative elements, they have small conical knobs on the upper side of the wall, below the mouth of the vessels (Pl. 6/1, 4). The pots in the presented sites as well as in the settlements assigned to Suciu de Sus and Lăpuş II–Gáva I cultures of Petea–Csengersima[22], lack the thumb-impressed appliqué belt. In the Plain of Satu Mare it appeared only in a late phase of Gáva culture, as in the case of the Gáva–Holihrady findings of Moldova[23]. The short cups with greatly lover-raised handle (Pl. 4/6) are specific for the Lăpuş II–Gáva inhabitation in the Plain of Satu Mare, type of vessel that has a large share in the category in the settlement of Petea–Csengersima[24]. Fragments of portable cooking vessels found in Călineşti-Oaş and Roşiori indicate that the channeled pottery found inside of them still belong to Lăpuş II–Gáva I phase, the cooking vessels being no longer used in the Gáva II pottery[25].

The Lăpuş II and Gáva I discoveries are closely related to the HaA chronological stage, the possibility of dating them even during a later period of Bz D phase, being an issue open to discussion. The possibility of dating during the last of these periods is quite difficult because they appear in some bronze pieces in both the Uriu–Ópályi deposits as well as in the Cincu–Suseni / Kurd ones. It is also the case of the disc-butted axe of Roşiori[26], of which we have reliable data that it was discovered on the outskirts of the settlement with pottery of the Lăpuş II–Gáva I type[27]. The disc-butted axes are present in a large number in the Uriu–Ópályi type deposits. However, they continue to register an isolated occurrence in deposits of the Cincu–Suseni / Kurd type[28].

Considerations on the Discoveries of Lăpuş II–Gáva I Type

The discoveries of Lăpuş II–Gáva I type originate from eight places located in the Plain of Satu Mare. Seven of them are settlements while the discovery of Călineşti-Oaş is a ritual type deposit, related either to the funerary field or to the worship / festive one.

The settlements of Lăpuş II–Gáva I type are located close to the Someş Valley, only the discovery of Călineşti-Oaş being farther. The settlements of Culciu Mare and Roşiori are located close to the river (the former stream), the other ones being located near to some effluents of Someş River. The discoveries of Valea Vinului and Călineşti-Oaş are located on hill areas while the settlement of Roşiori is located on a high plain area. The other discoveries are located on low plain or valley areas.

The Lăpuş II–Gáva I settlements have similar locations as the settlements of Suciu II phase, on five sites. A direct successive inhabitation of Suciu de Sus / Lapus II Gáva I type is not in discussion in the case of the settlement of Dorolţ because this settlement is assigned to Suciu de Sus IIa phase. In contrast, for other settlements (Culciu Mare–*Sub Grădini*, Lazuri–*Lubi Tag*, Petea and Valea Vinului) this possibility is maintained, given that the Suciu de Sus type inhabitations from here were assigned to the final phase of the culture (IIb). Certain genetic links between the sites with excised-incised pottery (Suciu de Sus IIb or Lapus I) and the sites with black, channeled pottery (Lapus II or Gáva I) found within the necropolis of Lăpuş and in other sites of the area[29], or in the case of the settlement of Petea–Csengersima30 could be brought into discussion also from the perspective of the large number of Lăpuş II–Gáva II settlements that are located on the same locations as the sites where the Suciu de Sus pottery was used.

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[22] Marta 2009, p. 88.
[23] László 1994, p. 93-94.
[24] Marta 2009, p. 74.
[25] Marta 2009, p. 68-69.
[26] Bader 1996, pl. 14/3.
[27] The place was indicated by Mr. Gh. Borşe, the discoverer of the axe (field researches performed on May 9, 2007, together with D. Dărăban, M. L. Nagy and J. Bakos).
[28] Vulpe 1970, p. 88-89, 96-98; Mozsolics 1985, p. 19.
[29] Kacsó 1975, p. 62-63; Kacsó 2001, 235-236.
[30] Marta 2009, p. 88-89, 91.

The comparing of the pottery in the Plain of Satu Mare to that of the sites in the neighboring regions shows that it is very similar to the pottery of Lăpuş II and Gáva I phases. The differences that appear in the pottery of these groups are minor, being attributable to the bordering cultural environments or to the local heritage expressed by each of the ceramic lots from the various regions on the lower stream of Crasna and Somes, the basin of Upper Tisa, respectively. The main elements individualizing the pottery of Upper Tisa region are as follows: the amphorae with a single row of protuberances, decorated with wide channels or ribs, several types of bowls that have the inner lip thickened and are decorated with horizontal (never oblique) channels or facets, the short cups decorated with knobs and fitted with a greatly over-raised handle. Besides these main elements, there are other elements clearly individualizing the pottery in the Upper Tisa as compared to the pottery in the neighboring cultural environments: Igriţa (Bihor area), pre-Gáva (the area of Middle Tisa) or the discoveries of Cugir–Band type (Transylvania). The pottery in Satu Mare area provides a number of common elements between Gáva I and Lapus II types of pottery, which raises the question of assigning them to the same cultural horizon, well individualized as compared to the surrounding cultural environments. At the same time, these pottery elements clearly differentiate the discoveries of Lăpuş II–Gáva I type from the previous inhabitation of Gáva II type.

In the Plain of Satu Mare, a continuation of a Lăpuş II–Gáva II type of settlement during Gáva II phase can be considered only for the settlement *Lubi Tag* of Lazuri. In fact, starting from this point, major changes in the material culture can be noticed, even if the use of channeled pottery continues. In addition to a substantial increase of the black / red dichromate fired pottery, new ceramic shapes and decorations appear, such as the amphorae with cone-shaped mouth that start being decorated with garland-shaped channels or the vessels with large lobes on the rims, decorated with wave-shaped incised bands. A new element that occurs in the Gáva II type pottery is the bowls with oblique-elongated channels / facets as predominant decoration. Even though there are some transmitted ceramic elements - the differences between the types of ceramic or metal parts, respectively the differences in the types of deposits[31], or the emergence of the large, fortified settlements specific to Gáva II phase – indicate that there are major differences between the two phases assigned to Gáva culture that could be attributed to more than a simple transformation of the material culture.

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[31] In the case of the bronze deposits, there is a shifting from the deposits of the Cincu-Suseni/Kurd type, with many fragmented pieces, to the ones of Turia–Jupalnic and Mograd–Tăuteu/ Hajdúböszörmény types, in which the complete metallic pieces are predominant. Similar transformations can be observed with respect to the ceramic deposits as well: if in the Upper Tisa Basin there is a large number of deposits with fragmented items during Ha A stage (both in settlements and in necropolis), during Gáva II phase the deposits of complete vessels are predominant (Marta 2009, p. 86-87, 102-103).

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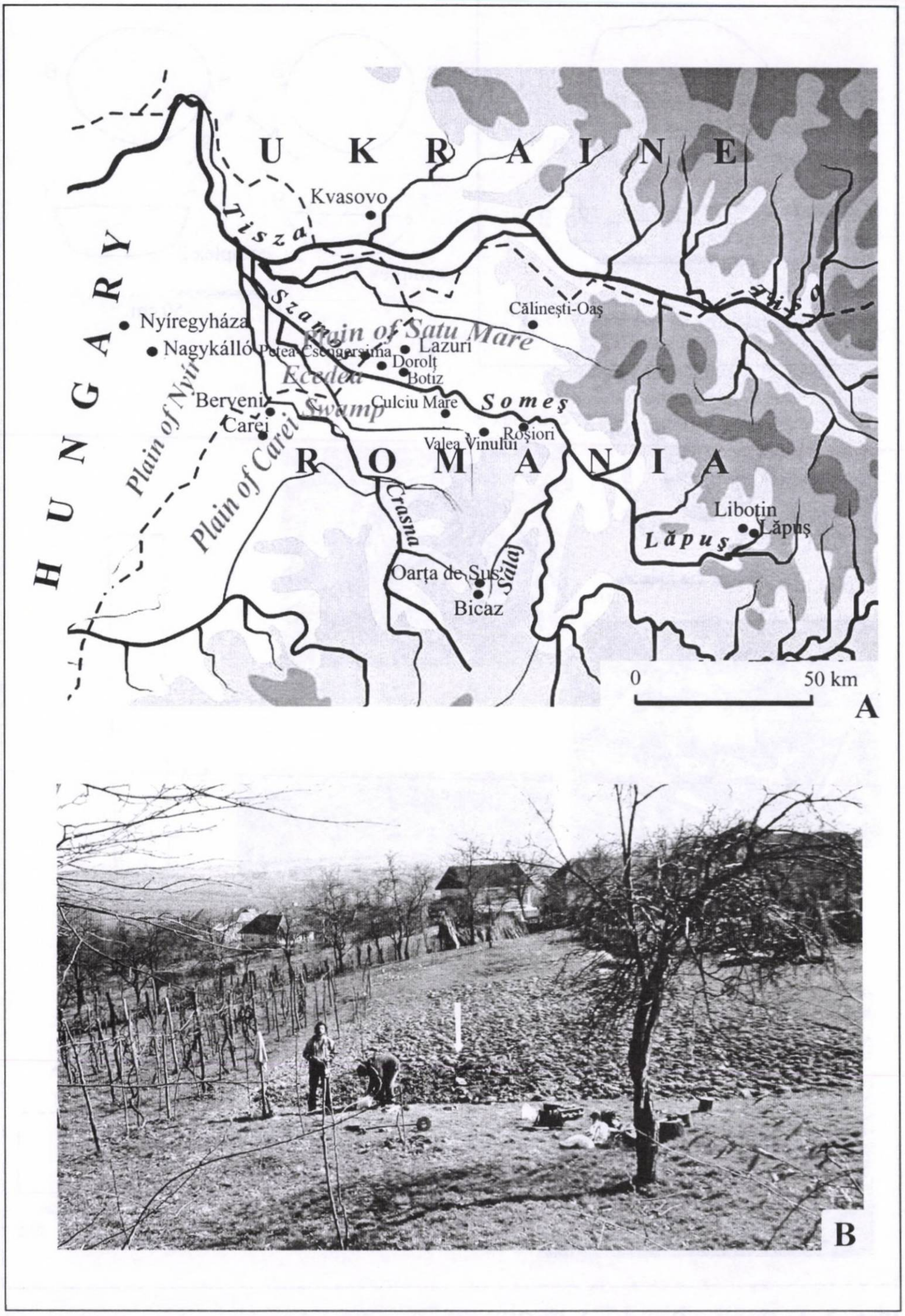

Plate 1. **A**) Sites containing finds of type Lăpuş II and Gáva I that have been mentioned in the text. **B**) Călineşti - Oaş**.** The discovery site.

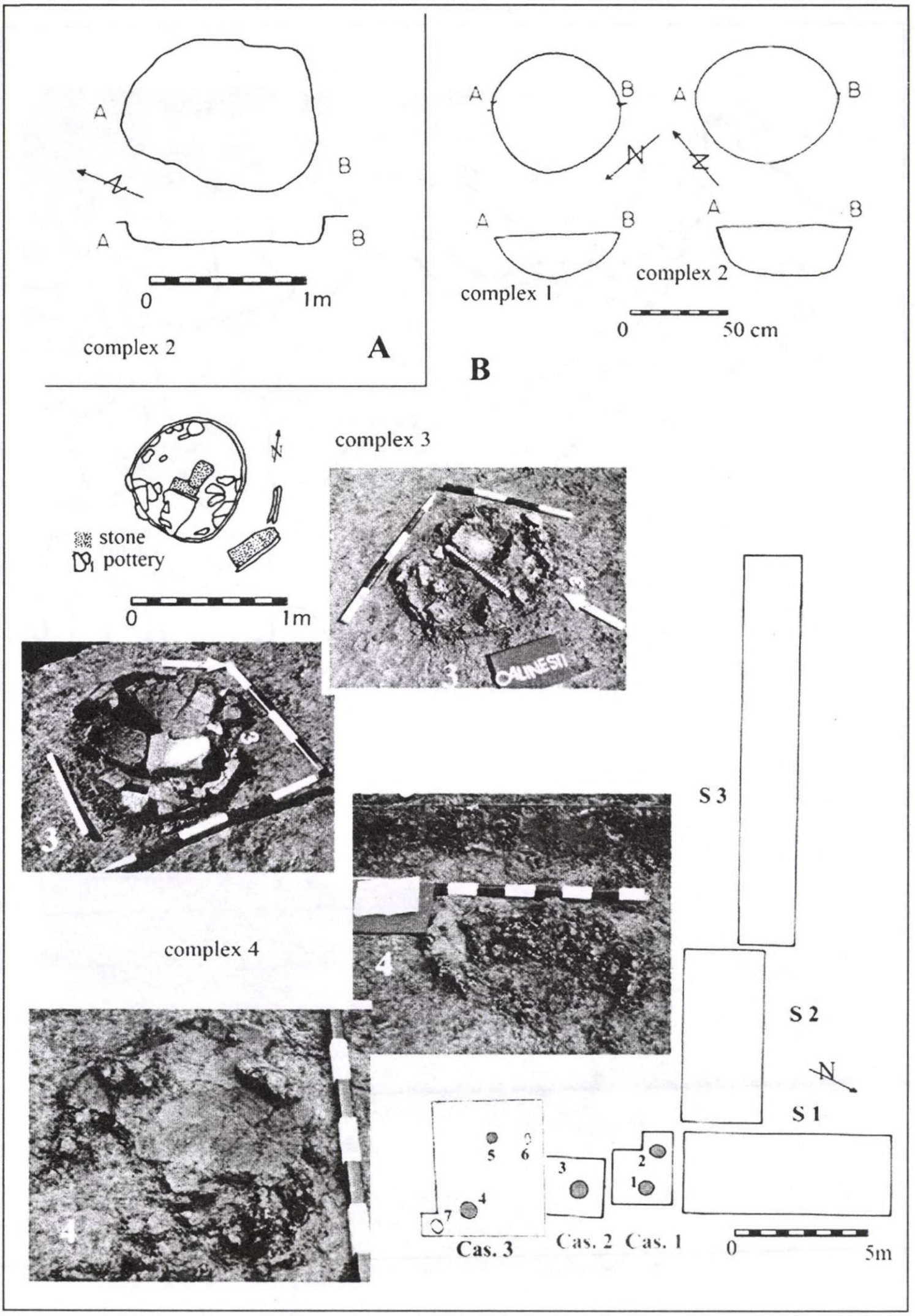

Plate 2. **A)** Dorolţ – Complex 2. **B)** Călineşti - Oaş. Plan of the excavations, drawings and photos of the discovered archeological complexes.

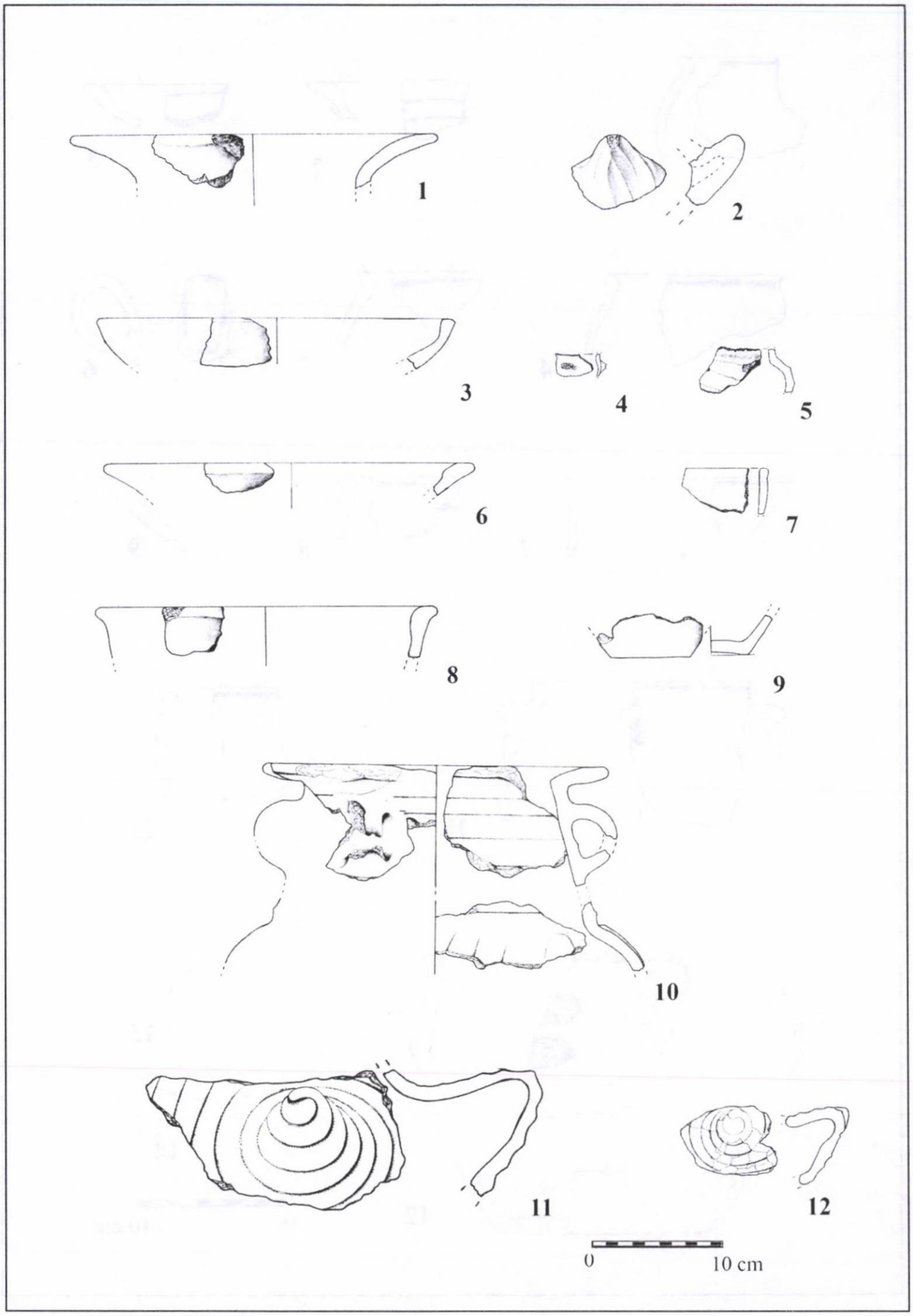

Plate 3. 1-9 Botiz; 10-12 Dorolţ- Complex 1.

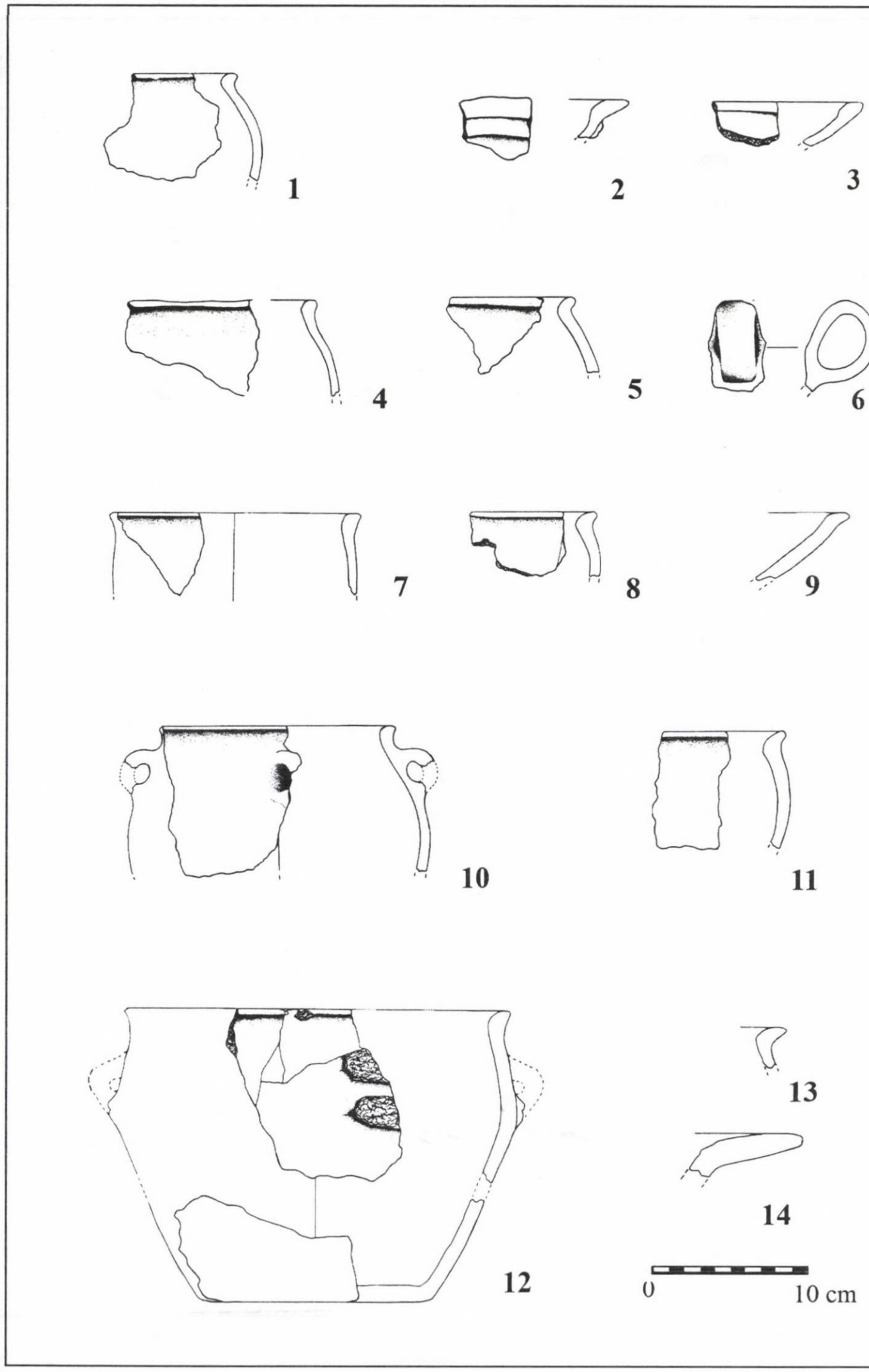

Plate 4. Dorolţ – Complex 2.

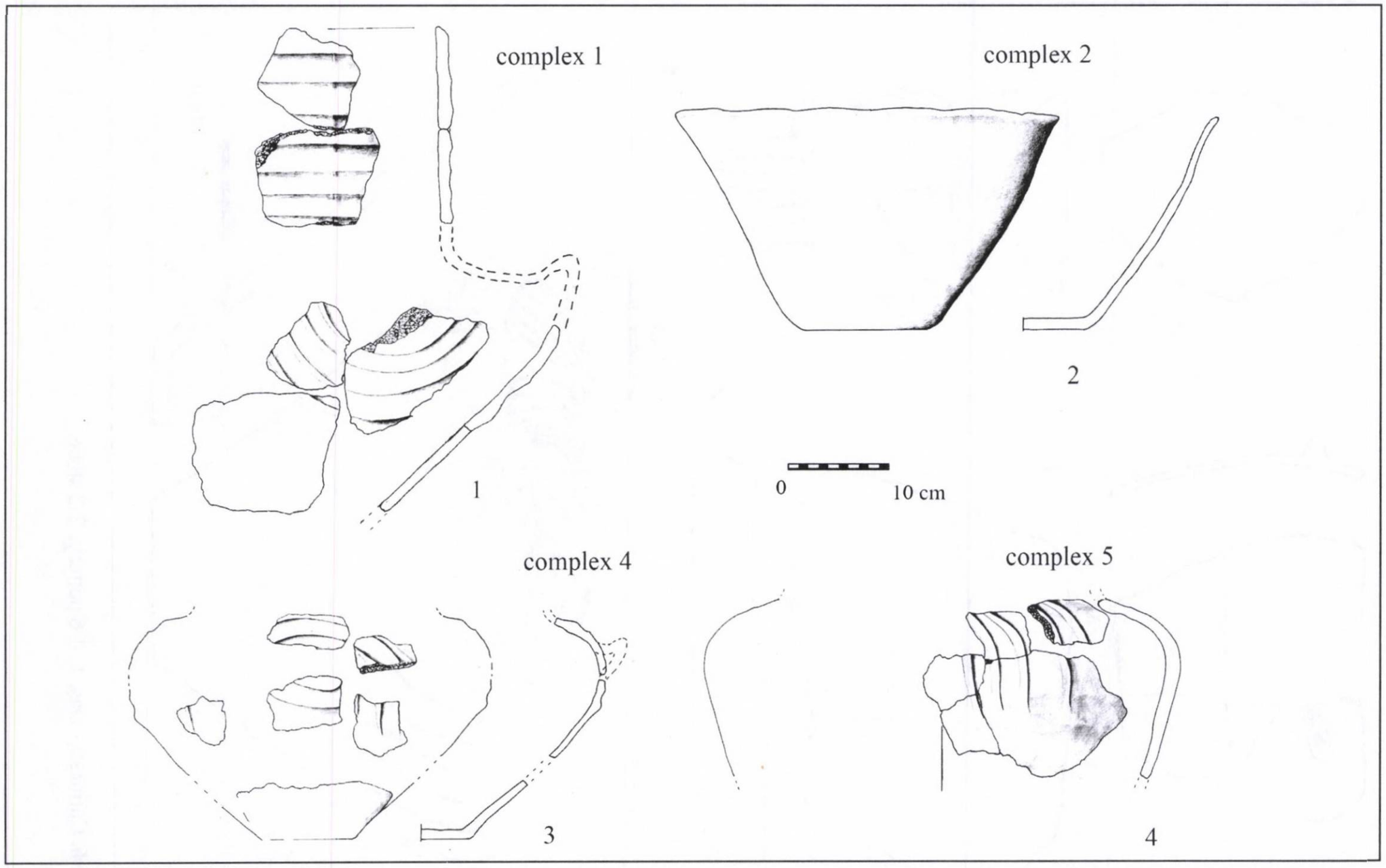

Plate 5. Călineşti - Oaş.

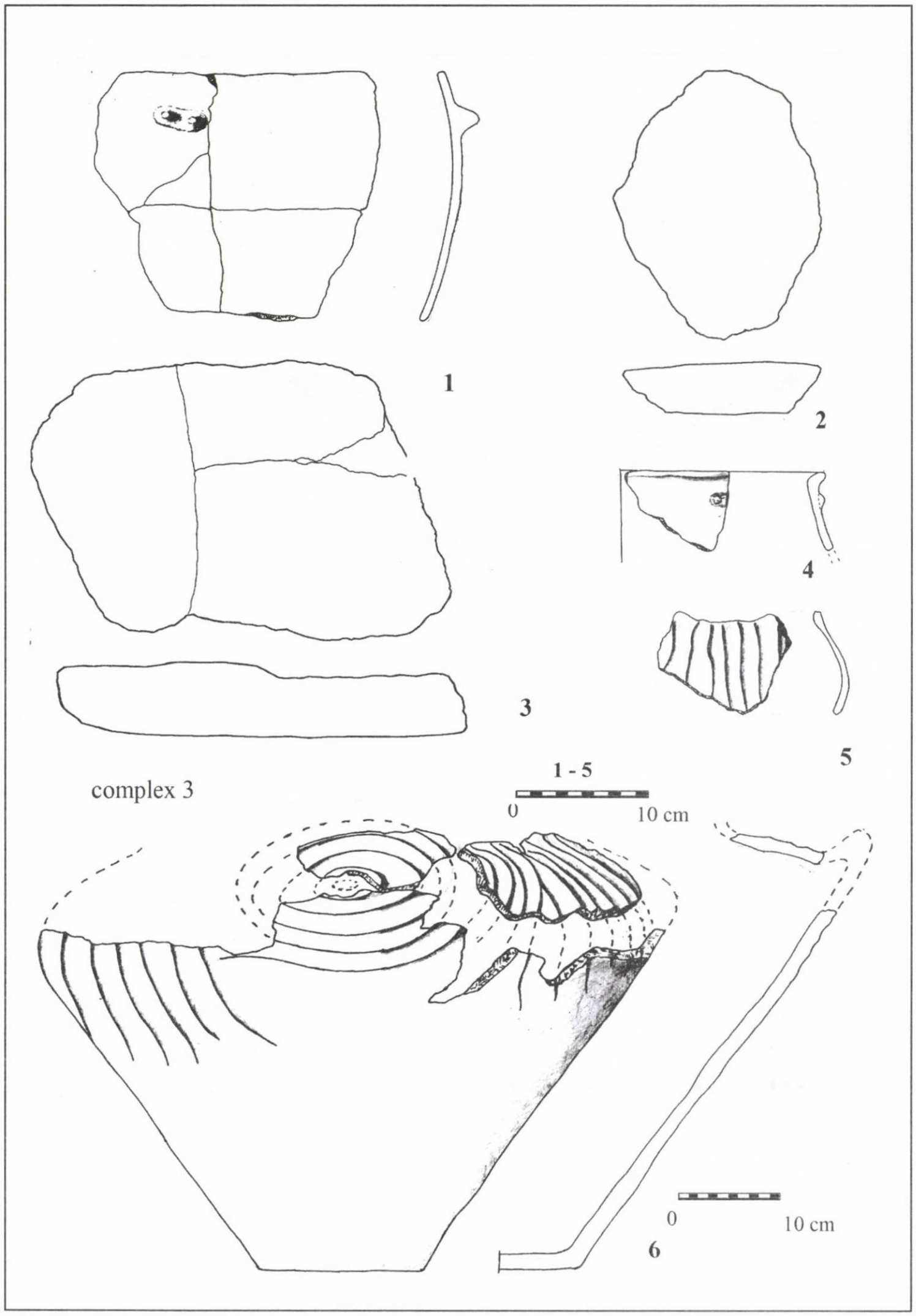

Plate 6. Călineşti - Oaş. 1, 4-6 pottery, 2-3 stone.

Abbreviations / Abkürzungen

AASzeg	Acta Universitatis Szegediensis, Szeged
AB	Analele Banatului, Timişoara
ActaAntArch	Acta Antiqua et Archaeologica, Szeged
ActaArchCarp	Acta Archaeologica Carpatica, Krakow
ActaArchHung	Acta Arheologica Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae, Budapest
Acta Musei Papensis	Acta Musei Papensis, Pápai Múzeumi Értesítő,Pápa
Acta Siculica	Acta Siculica, A Székely Nemzeti Múzeum Évkönyve, Sepsiszentgyörgy
AÉ	Archeologiai Értesítő, Budapesti
AH	Arhaeologia Historica, Brno
AlbaRegia	Alba Regia, Anales Musei Stephani Regis, Székesfehérvár Hungarica, Budapest
AMN	Acta Musei Napocensis, Cluj-Napoca
AMP	Acta Musei Porolissensis, Zalău
Angustia	Angustia. Muzeul Carpaţilor Răsăriteni, Sfântu Gheorghe
Antaeus	Anteus.Communicationes ex Instituto Arheologico Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae, Budapest
Antiquity	Antiquity. A quarterly review of archaeology, Cambridge
APA	Acta Praehistorica et Archaeologica, Berlin
Apulum	Apulum, Acta Musei Apulensis, Alba Iulia
AR	Archeologické Rozhledy, Praga
Arrabona	Arrabona. Múzeumi Közlemények, Győr
ArchAus	Arhaeologia Austriaca, Wien
ArchHung	Archaeologia Hungarica, Budapest
Arch Slov Fontes	Archaeologica Slovaca Fontes, Bratislava
Arheologija Ukrainskoj	Arheologija Ukrainskoj SSR,Kiev
ArhMold	Arheologia Moldovei, Iaşi
ASGE	Archeologičeskij Sbornik Gosudastvennogo ErmitaŽA, Sankt Petersburg
AVANS	Archeologické Vyskumy a Nálezy na Slovensku
BAR	Britisch Archaeological Reports, Oxford
BÁMÉ	Béri Balogh Ádám Múzeum Évkönyve
BCŞS	Buletinul Cercurilor ştiinţifice studenţeşti.Alba Iulia
Bericht RGK	Bericht der Römisch-Germanischen Kommission, Mainz a. Rhein
BiArh	Bibliotheca de Arheologie, Bucureşti
BiblSeptemcastrensis	Bibliotheca Septemcastrensis. Universitatea „Lucian Blaga" Sibiu. Institutul pentru cercetarea şi valorificarea patrimoniului cultural transilvănean în context european
BiblMarmatia	Bibliotheca Marmatia, Baia Mare
BiblThrac	Bibliotheca Thracologica, Bucureşti
Biharea	Biharea Culegere de studii. Muzeul Ţării Crişurilor. Oradea
BMA	Biblioteca Musei Apulensis, Alba Iulia
BMN	Bibliotheca Musei Napocensis, Cluj
BMP	Bibliotheca Musei Porolissensis, Zalău
BJ	Bonner Jahrbücher des Rheinischen Landesmuseums in Bonn und des Vereins von Alterumsfreunden im Rheinlande, Koln
BTM	Budapesti Törtenelmi Múzeum
BUFAMK	Beiträge zur Ur- und Frühgeschichtlichen Archäologie des Mittelmeer-Kulturraumes
Carpatica	Carpatica, Universitatea Naţională Ujgorod

CCAR	Cronica cercetărilor arheologice din România, Bucureşti
CCDJ	Cultură şi civilizaţie la Dunărea de Jos, Călăraşi
CercArh	Cercetări Arheologice. Muzeul Naţional de Istorie a României, Bucureşti
Colecţii Muzeale	Muzeul Judeţean Maramureş, Baia Mare
CMBS	Complexul Muzeal Bucovina Suceava
ComArchHung	Communicationes Archaeologicae Hungariae, Budapest
Corviniana	Corviniana. Acta Musei Corvinensis, Hunedoara.
Dacia	Dacia. Recherches et Découvertes Archéologiques en Roumanie, Bucureşti
DMÉ	A debreceni Déri Múzeum Évkönyve, Debrecen
Dolg	Dolgozatok az Erdélyi Nemzeti Múzeum Érem- és Régiségtárából, Kolozsvár/Dolgozatok a M. Kir. Ferencz József Tudományegytem Archaeológiai Intézetéből, Szeged
EphNap	Ephemeris Napocensis, Cluj-Napoca
Eurasia Antiqua	Eurasia Antiqua. Zeitschrift fúr Archáologie Eurasiens, Mainz am Rhein
FA	Folia Archaeologica, Budapest
Germania	Germania. Anzeiger der Römisch- Germanischen Komission des Deutschen Archäologischen Instituts, Mainz
HC	Historia Carpatica. Zborník Vychodoslovenského Múzea v Košiciach, Košice
HOMÉ	A Miskolci Hermann Ottó Múzeum évkönyve, Miskolc
Jahrbuch RGZM	Jahrbuch Römisch-Germanisches Zentralmuseum Mainz -Metzner
Jahresschr. Halle	Jahresschrift für Mitteldeutsche Vorgeschichte, Halle (Saale)
JAMÉ	A nyíregházi Jósa András Múzeum évkönyve, Nyíregyáza
JAnthrArch	Journal of Anthropological Archeology
JPMÉ	A Janus Pannonius Muzeum Évkönyve
Közlemények	Közlemények az Erdélyi Múzeum Érem és Régiségtárából, Kolozsvár (Cluj)
Lund Archaeological Review	Publications of the Institute of Archaeology and the Historical Museum, University of Lund
Marisia	Marisia, Muzeul Judeţean Mureş, Târgu Mureş
Marmaţia	Marmaţia, Baia Mare
Materiale	Materiale şi cercetări arheologice, Bucureşti
Mărturii arheologice	Mărturii arheologice Muzeul Judeţean Maramureş, Baia Mare
MFMÉ-StudArch	Móra Ferenc Múzeum Évkönyve- Studia Archaeologica, Szeged
MIASSSR	Materiali issledovanja po arheologiji SSSR Moskva
MΩMΩΣ III	MΩMΩΣ III Őskoros kutatók összejövetelének konferenciakötete, Debrecen
NMMÉ	Nógrad Megyei Múzeumok Évkönyve, Balassagyarmat
OA	Opuscula archaeologica, Budapest
Ősrégészeti Levelek	Ősrégészeti Levelek, Budapest
PA	Památky Archeologické, Praga
PAS	Prähistorische Archäologie in Südosteuropa
Patrimonium Apulense	Patrimonium Apulense, Alba Iulia
PBF	Prähistorische Bronzefunde
PraceMat	Prace i Materialy Muzeum Archeologicznego i Etnograficznego w Lódzi, Lódz
Prace archeologiczne	Prace archeologiczne, Warszawa-Kraków
PrzA	Przeglad Archeologiczny, Poznan- Wroclaw
PZ	Prähistorische Zeitschrift, Berlin
Relationes	Relationes thraco-illyro-helléniques, Actes du XIV-e Symposium

	National de Thracologie, Băile Herculane 1992, Bucureşti 1994
RevBistriţei	Revista Bistriţei, Muzeul Judeţean Bistriţa, Bistriţa
RGF	Römisch-Germanische Forschungen, Berlin
RMF	Ráckevei Múzeumi Füzetek
SA	Sovietskaia Archeologia, Moscova
SAA	Studia Antiqua et Archaeologica,Iaşi
Sargetia	Sargetia, Acta Musei Devensis, Deva
Savaria	Savaria, Szombathely
SCIV	Studii şi cercetări de istorie veche, Bucureşti
SCIVA	Studii şi cercetări de istorie veche şi arheologie, Bucureşti
Situla	Situla.Dissertatines Musei Nationalis Labacensis
SlovArch	Slovencká Archeológia, Nitra-ilon
SMK	Somogy megyei Múzeumok Közleményei, Kaposvár
Spraw. Arch.	Sprawozdania Archeologiczne
StCom Satu Mare	Studii şi comunicări. Arheologie, Satu Mare
StComSibiu	Studii şi comunicări. Arheologie, Istorie, Sibiu
StudArch	Studia Archeologica, Budapest
Študijné Zvesti	Študijné Zvesti. Archeologického Ústavu Slovenskei Akadémie Vied, Nitra
SUBB	Studia Universitatis Babeş–Bolyai, Cluj
SympThrac	Symposia Thracologica. Institutul Român de Tracologie, Bucureşti.
Szolnok MMÉvk.	Szolnok Megyei Múzeum Évkönyve, Szolnok
SzSzBSz	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg Megyei Szemle, Nyíregyháza
RégFüz	Régészeti Füzetek, Muzeul Naţional Maghiar, Budapesta
Savaria	Savaria, A Vas Megyei Múzeumok Évkönyve
Thraco-Dacica	Thraco – Dacica. Institutul Român de Tracologie, Bucureşti
Tibiscus	Tibiscus. Muzeul Banatului, Timişoara
Tisicum	Tisicum A Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok Megyei Múzeumok Évkönyve
UPA	Universitätsforschungen zur Prähistorischen Archäologic
VAH	Varia Archaeologica Hungarica, Budapest
VAMZ	Vjesnik Arheološkog. Muzeja u Zagrebu,. Zagreb
VMMK	Veszprém megyei Múzeumok Közleményei, Veszprém
VP	Vychodoslovensky Pravek, Kosice

ISSN 0258-155
editura muzeului sătmărea

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